Dent's Modern Language Series

FRENCH GRAMMAR

FRENCH GRAMMAR

 $\mathbf{B}\mathbf{Y}$

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PREFACE

The present volume is issued at the request of many teachers of modern languages who, for various reasons, found that a grammar written in English would be better suited to the conditions under which they have to work. Some seemed to be of the opinion that both editions—French and English—might be used simultaneously in the class-room, according to the preference of individual pupils. In order to make this possible, we have numbered the paragraphs in the same way as in the French book. Only one alteration has been made: Comparative Clauses have been dealt with in § 263, while Causal Clauses have been transferred to § 264. In all other respects, the arrangement of the matter will be found identical with that of the fifteenth French edition (1921).

This new volume is not merely a translation of our Grammaire Française, but in some ways an improvement upon it. All the points which the experience of the classroom has proved to be particularly difficult for English pupils have been dealt with more fully and, we hope, with greater clearness.

The principles which have guided us were stated at length in the Preface to the first French edition (1903). They may be summed up as follows:

r. The beginner should never be taught anything which he might have to unlearn at a later stage. Erroneous notions, once rooted in a pupil's mind, are very difficult to eradicate. Every statement contained in this volume will be found strictly accurate historically.

PREFACE

- 2. It is more sound, educationally, to appeal to the pupil's intelligence than to his memory. It is no doubt very simple to divide French verbs into four conjugations, and to call irregular those that do not conform to type. But this method runs counter to historical evidence, and in order to avoid a little effort at the start, is only creating trouble for the future. Besides, it is likely to make pupils hate their grammar lesson, for they are naturally reluctant to memorise facts which they do not understand. We have done our best to explain, by a discreet use of phonetics, or by reference to Latin usage, the so-called "exceptions" due to the action of phonetic laws or to the historical evolution of the language.
- 3. This Grammar is not intended to be a book of reference, but a short, practical guide. We have therefore concentrated our attention upon the essential difficulties of English boys and girls, and we have purposely neglected the Chinese puzzles that used to rejoice the hearts of examiners in bygone days. For the same reason, we have only touched lightly upon those points where French usage does not differ materially from English. When a pupil is likely to go right of his own accord, it is best to let well alone.

We feel justified in expressing our confident belief that this volume, in spite of its small compass, will be found to satisfy the needs of English pupils, and will give them all the help they require in order to speak and write French with accuracy and precision.

In conclusion, we wish to acknowledge our indebtedness to Mr. Walter Ripman and to Dr. C. T. Onions for many valuable hints, and for their kindness in revising the proofs.

H. E. BERTHON.

OXFORD.

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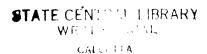
ALPHABET

OF

THE INTERNATIONAL PHONETIC ASSOCIATION

a	as in	patte	၁	as in	hotte
a	,,	påte	5	,,	honte
ā	**	pente	ø	**	j <i>e</i> 4ne
b	,,	<i>b</i> on	œ	••	j <i>eu</i> ne
d	٠,	dont	$\mathbf{\tilde{e}}$,,	jeun, un
e	,,	gré	p	,,	<i>p</i> as
E	,,	grès	r	,,	rire 1
Ē	••	grain	R	••	rire
ə (e mu	ıte) ,,	je	s	,,	si
f		fort	t	,,	tas
g	,,	gant, dogue	u	,,	roue
i	••	ni, pire	y	1)	rue
i	•	bien, yeux, œil	v	••	vert
ek	,,	car, coq, quinze	VA.	,,	0161
1	**	long	ų	,,	1161
m	••	mot	Z	,,	rose
n	,,	non	ſ	,,	<i>Ch</i> arles
p	.,	montagne	3	.,	Jean, rouge
0	**	hôte			

^{&#}x27; Cf. § 23, footnote 2.

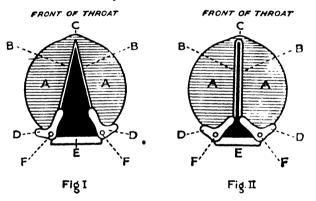


I. SOUNDS AND THEIR SYMBOLS

(The letters in square brackets are those of the alphabet used by the Association phonétique internationale, as given on the opposite page.)

§ 1. When the air is expelled from the lungs and passes through the mouth (and/or nose) it produces either a voiced or a voiceless sound.

Voiced when the vocal chords are made to vibrate. Voiceless when they are not.



Each of the circles shown above represents a section of the larynx (the upper portion of the windpipe).

AA are membranes stretching across it. The edges of each membrane are thickened by fibres of elastic tissue, and are known as the vocal chords, BB.

These chords are fastened, in the front of the throat, to the thyroid cartilage C (Adam's apple), and at the back to the arytenoid cartilages, DD.

The arytenoid cartilages are articulated with the cricoid ring E, and, under the action of various muscles, are made to revolve on a pivot F (very much in the manner of an old-fashioned bell crank).

Thus the arytenoid cartilages control the position of the chords. When these are wide apart as in Fig. I., an opening is left (shown in black) through which the air can pass freely. But when they are brought close together as in Fig. II., only a very narrow slit is left between them, through which the air has to force its way, and the resulting friction causes the vocal chords to vibrate.

When the chords are in the position shown in Fig. I., a voiceless sound is produced—when in that shown in Fig. II., a voiced sound is produced.

The difference between the two kinds of sound can be realised in a practical way by stopping both ears with the fingers, and at the same time pronouncing in succession either f and v, or s and z. When v or z is pronounced, a loud buzzing will be heard, which does not occur when pronouncing f or s.

§ 2. A vowel is the sound produced when the breath has a free passage through the mouth.

A consonant is the sound produced when the passage is not entirely free, but is either narrowed or stopped (cf. § 17). That is the only difference.

§ 8. Vowel sounds are nearly always voiced, but they may also be voiceless, for instance in whispering (cf. § 41, ii.).

Consonants may be either voiced (e.g. v, z), or voiceless (e.g. f, s).

2

VOWELS

§ 4. What causes the difference in the sound of the various vowels?

We can play any musical note on a violin, and again on a flute. The *note* is the same, yet the sound is not the same. Why? Because the two instruments have a different shape.

Similarly, if we alter the shape of our mouth, we alter the sound of the vowels. Thus we can sing a and i on the same note. Yet a has not the same sound as i.

- § 5. We can alter the shape of our mouth by:
 - I. changing the position of the tongue;
 - 2. changing the shape of the hps;
 - 3. changing the position of the lower jaw.
- § 6. Front vowels. These vowels are : [a] [ϵ] [e] [i].
 - [a] represents the sound of a in chasse, patte.
 - [ε] ,, e in belle, ferme, è in grès, è in suprême,

ai, ei in craie, treize.

- [e] " é in gré, ar in j'ai, je sais.
- [i] " i in gris.
- § 7. They are called front vowels because they are produced by raising the *front* of the tongue towards the hard palate (see the diagrams in § 15).

The lips are opened naturally, without rounding (see the diagrams in § 16).

- § 8. Back vowels. These vowels are: [a] [b] [o] [u].
 - [a] represents the sound of a, d in pas, chasse, pate.
 - [o] ,, o in hotte,
 - [o] ,, o, d in pose, hote,

eau in eau, beau.

[u] ,, ou, oû, in outre, voûte.

§ 9. They are called back vowels because they are produced by raising the back of the tongue towards the back of the palate (see the diagrams in § 15).

The lips are rounded and pushed forward, as in whistling (see the diagrams in § 16).

This last point is of the utmost importance.

§ 10. Front vowels with lip rounding.

These vowels are: [œ] [ə] [ø] [y].

- [ce] represents the sound of eu in jeune, peur.
- [ə] e in ie.
- [ø] " " eu, eû, in peu, jeûne.
- [y] , u in jus.

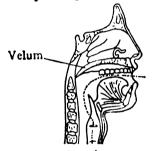
§ 11. For these vowels, the position of the tongue is the same as for the *front* vowels. The shape of the lips is the same as for the *back* vowels (rounded and pushed forward).

For example, in order to acquire the correct pronunciation of [ce], we must pronounce [s], and round the lips as for [o]—for [ø] we must pronounce [e], and round the lips as for [o]—for [y] we must pronounce [i], and round the lips as for [u], being very careful, in each case, not to let the tongue fall back.

The pronunciation of [ə] is intermediate between [œ] and [ø]. The vowel [ə] is always short and always unstressed, except in the pronoun le after a verb in the imperative: Fais-le [fɛkø], emmène-le [āmɛnlø].

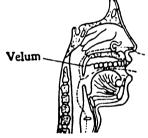
- \S 12. Nasal vowels : $[\tilde{a}]$ $[\tilde{\epsilon}]$ $[\tilde{\infty}]$ $[\tilde{\delta}]$.
- [ā] represents the sound of an, am in chance, champ, en, em in pente, sembler.
- [t] that of ain in grain, ein in plein, in in vin, en in bien.
- [æ] that of eun in jeun, un, um in brun, humble.
- [5] that of on, om in honte, conte. comte.

§ 13. They are called nasal vowels because the air passes not only through the mouth, but also through the nostrils.



Oral vowels

Velum raised, stopping the passage of air through the nose.



Nasal vowels

Velum dropped, allowing the passage of air through both mouth and nose.

The best way to acquire a correct pronunciation of the nasal vowels is to start with the corresponding *oral* vowels and to practise *gliding* from the oral to the nasal sound (by lowering the velum), being very careful not to alter the lip and tongue positions.

Thus, to pronounce [a] start from [a]

, [ɛ̄] ,, [ɛ̄] ,, [œ̄] ,, [œ̄] , [ɔ̄] ,, [ɔ]

The examples given on page / may be useful.

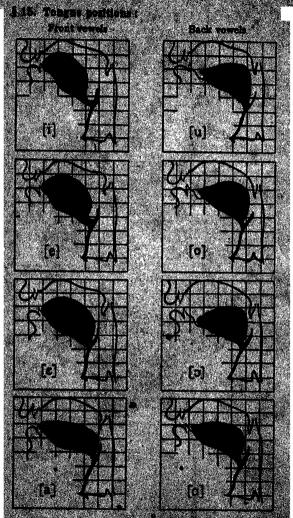
§ 14. Phonetic chart of the French vowels .

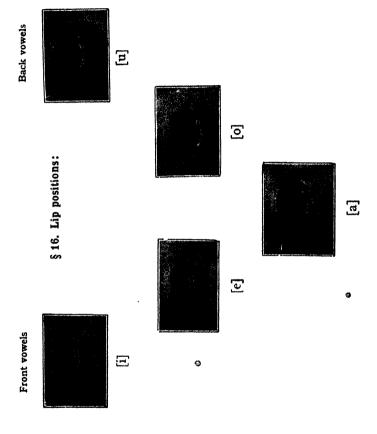
Front vowels	Front vowels with hp-rounding	Back vowels
[1]	[y]	[u]
[e]	[a] [a]	[0]
[ε]	$[\alpha]$	[5]
nasal [ā] vowels [ĕ]	[œ̃]	[a] [ã] [3]

SOUNDS § 14

Examples:

i.	[a] grave	[ɛ] grève	[e] gré	[i] grive
ii.	[ɑ] pâle	[ɔ] Paul	[o] pôle	[u] poule
iii.	[a] chasse patte	ch	[a] .âssc .âte	[ñ] ch <i>anc</i> e p <i>e</i> nte
	[c] gré		[ε] τ <i>ὲ</i> ς	[ē] grain
	[ø] j <i>eû</i> ne æufs	j <i>e</i>	ce] eune rui	[œ̃] jeun u n
	[o] hóte cóte	h	[ɔ] øtte øtte	[5] honte conte
iv.	[ɛ] mère père	m	[æ] neurt neur	[5] mort port
	[e] d é		[ø] leux	[o] dos
	[i] dis riz		[y] du rue 7	





CONSONANTS

§ 17. As already stated (cf. § 2), a consonant is a sound produced when the breath has not a free passage through the mouth (or nose). One of two things may happen:

I. The air passage is narrowed (this resulting in friction).

2. The air passage is completely stopped (for a fraction of a second, then opened again).

In the first case, the consonant is called frientive, or continuant (because the pronunciation can be continued

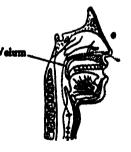
for as long as the breath lasts—e.g. f, v, s, z).

A liquid consonant is a fricative, to pronounce which the tip of the tongue is raised, while the edges of the tongue are lowered sufficiently to allow the air to pass along both sides of it—e.g. l, r.

In the second case, the consonant is called **pictive** fin French, *explosive*) because, when the closed passage is suddenly opened, the sound bursts out with a kind of explosion, as for instance ϕ in $\phi a \phi a$).

§ 18. A consonant is called nasal when the air escapes only through the nose (the velum being completely velum lowered, and the mouth passage closed).¹

This diagram illustrates the complete lowering of the velum, allowing the breath to escape through the nostrils only.



When a person has a bad cold, the nostrils are stopped up. Such a person cannot pronounce nasals, but only the corresponding plosives, b for m, and d for n. Instead of mon emi [monami] we hear [hodabl]. It is therefore not true to say that a person who has a cold speaks through the nose. It is the reverse that is true,

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- § 19. The air passage may be narrowed or stopped in several ways:
 - 1° by both lips (labial consonants).
- 2° by the lower lip against the upper teeth (labio-dental consonants).
- 3° by the tongue against the upper teeth (linguo-dental, or simply dental, consonants):
 - 4° by the tongue against the palate (palatal consonants).

§ 20. Labial consonants:

fricatives { [w] voiced—as ou in oui, ouate; [u] voiced—as u in lui, tuer.

plosines $\begin{cases} [b] \text{ voiced} - as b \text{ in } b \text{on} b \text{on}; \\ [p] \text{ voiceless} - as p \text{ in } p \text{a} p \text{a}. \end{cases}$

masal [m] voiced—as m in maman.

§ 21. Labio-dental consonants:

 $\begin{cases} [v] \text{ voiced} \text{--as } v \text{ in } v \text{in } ; \\ [f] \text{ voiceless--as } f \text{ in } f \text{in.} \end{cases}$

§ 22. Dental consonants:

[z] voiced—as s in maison, poison, and z in douze.

[s] voiceless—as s, ss in chanson, poisson, or ç in garçon, or t in nation.

[3] voiced—as j in Jean, or g in gens;

[] voiceless—as ch in chant.

plosives $\{[d] \text{ voiced} - \text{as } d \text{ in } d \text{ois }, \\ [t] \text{ voiceless} - \text{as } t \text{ in } t \text{oi.} \}$

liquids $\begin{cases} [l] \text{ voiced} \text{--as } l \text{ in } loi; \\ [r] \text{ voiced} \text{--as } r \text{ in } roi. \end{cases}$

nasal [n] voiced—as n ir noix.

§ 23. Palatal consonants.

fricatives

[j] 1 voiced—as i in pied, bien,
or il, ill in ceil, paille,
or y in yeux;
[R] 2 voiced—as r in roi.

[g] voiced—as g in grand, garçon,
or gu in guerre.
[k] voiceless—as c in canne, classe,
or q in cinq, coq,
or qu in cinqmème, quand.

nasal [n] voiced—as gn in montagne, règne, Bourgogne.

§ 24. Phonetic chart of the French Consonants:

		I abials	Labro- dentals.	Linguo- dentals	l'alatale
Fricatives	voiceless	[w] [η]	[f] [v]	[s] ʃ] [z] [3]	[j] [R]
Plosives	voiceless voiced	[b]		[t] [d]	[k]
Liquids				[l] [r]	
Nasals		• [m]		[n]	[h] •

In the ordinary spelling, which is very imperfect, it often happens that the sound [j] is not represented at all, one letter (generally an s or a y) having to do duty for several sounds. Such letters have to be decomposed into their various elements, as in the following examples:

abbaye, pronounce as ab-bai-yie [abeji] pai-yis pays, [pen] payer. pai-yer [peje] hier. hi-ver [ijer] ouvrier, ou-vri-yer [uvrije] ployer, essuyer, ploi-yer [plwaje] es-sui-yer [esuhe]

^{*}The difference between [r] and [R] is that [r] is produced by trilling the tip of the tongue, [R] by trilling the uvula. The former is the provincial r (especially in the south), the latter is the Parisian r, and that of northern France.

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§ 25. The alphabet used in ordinary spelling consists of twenty-six letters:

2	called in French	[a]	0	called in F	rench [o]
þ	**	[be]	P	,,	[pe]
С	"	[se]	q	,,	[ky]
q	,,	[de]	r	"	[ɛr]
е	**	[e]	s	"	[ɛ s]
f	,,	[εf]	t	"	[te]
g	,,	[3]	u	,,,	[y]
h	,,	[a∫]	v	••	[ve]
i	,,	[1]	W	,,	double v
j	,,	[31]			[dubləve]
k	. ,,	[ka]	x	,,	[iks]
1	,,	[εl]	у	,,	i grec
n	n "	[εm]			[igrɛk]
n	,,,	[sn]	z	11	[zɛd]

N.B.—Ordinary spelling is very imperfect, it does not represent sounds accurately. When we want to write exactly as we speak, we use the *phonetic* alphabet (facing page 1).

§ 26. Accents and signs.

- i. (') The acute accent (l'accent aigu): 6 is called e fermé=[e].
- ii (') The grave accent (l'accent grave): è is called e ouvert=[ε].
- iii. (*) The circumflex accent (l'accent circonflexe)—It often (though not always, e.g. extrême) marks the loss of an s. Compare French mastre with English master and German Meister—French forêt with English forest and German Forst.

For instance, the sound [d] may be written in six different ways: an (dans), am (chambre), an (tente), am (emporter), asn (Caen), and son (paon).

SOUNDS §§ 25, 26

N.B.—The grave accent or the circumflex accent may also be used in order to avoid confusion between two words written with the same letters and pronounced alike. Thus:

a (verb) and d (preposition)
la (article) and ld (adverb)
du (article) and dd (past participle of devoir)
mur (noun) and mûr (adjective)
sur (preposition) and sûr (adjective)

- iv. (,) The cedilla (la cédille, -little z) is placed under c before a, o, or u, to show that the c is pronounced like [s] and not like [k]: le garçon, nous avançons.
- v. (") The diæresis (le trêma) is placed on the second of two successive vowels and shows that they are pronounced separately:

hair, pronounce [air] and not [er],

héroine, pronounce [eroin] and not [erwan].

In words ending with gue, a diæresis placed on the e shows that the u must be pronounced as a separate vowel:

aigue, pronounce [egy] and not [e:g]

vi. (') The apostrophe (*l'apostrophe*) marks the elision of a final vowel before a word beginning with a vowel or mute h. Por instance: *l'arbre* (for le arbre)—*l'*homme (for le homme). In such cases the final vowel is said to be elided.

e is very frequently elided (in je, me, te, se, le, que, de, ne, etc. . .): on m'appelle, j'al, qu'as-tu? le n'ai pas, etc.

a is only elided in the article la, e.g. l'eau (for la eau).

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i is elided in si, only when the next word is the pronoun il. Thus we say s'il and not si il, but we must say si elle, si on, si un, etc.

N.B.—The i of qui is never elided.

- vii (-) The hyphen (le trait d'union) is used to join certain words together. For example: a-t-il, n'est-ce pas?
- viii (,) The comma is called la virgule.
 - (,) The semicolon is called le point et virgule.
 - (.) The full stop is called le point.
 - (:) The colon is called les deux points.
 - (!) The exclamation mark is called le point d'exclamation.
 - (?) The question mark is called le point d'interrogation
 - (-) The dash is called le tiret.
 - (a »), (" ") The inverted commas are called les guillemets.
 - () The brackets are called les parenthèses.
 - [] The square brackets are called les crochets.

II. THE CHIEF PHONETIC AND SPELLING CHANGES

§ 27. In every word there is one syllable which is pronounced with greater emphasis than the rest. It is called the stressed (or tonic) syllable.

In French, the stress falls on the last syllable of the word, as in na-ti-on, cha-ri-té, nous par-lons. But, if the last syllable happens to be *mute*, the stress falls on the penultimate (or last but one) syllable, as in for-tu-ne, cou-ra-ge, je par-le.

§ 28. A syllable is called *mute* when it ends with e, es, or with the verbal ending ent. In all words other than verbs, the syllable ent is stressed.

Compare:

the adverb souvent [suva] with the verb

ils sauvent [so:v],
the noun président [prezida] with the verb

ils president [prezid].

§ 29. It often happens that a word changes its form. by lengthening or shortening.

For example, if we compare the infinitive chanter with the present je chante and the future je chanterai, we see that:

- (a) In the infinitive, the stress is on the last syllable: chan-ter.
- (b) In the present, the last syllable is mute; the stress is therefore on the penultimate: chan-te.
- (c) In the future, the last syllable is stressed: chan-te-ral.

Thus, in each case, the stress falls upon a different syllable: chan-ter, je chan-te, je chan-te-ral.

₩ 30-33

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§ 30. As a rule, the difference between the stressed and the unstressed syllables is marked only by greater force of breath.

But in many cases it is marked also by a change of vowel (and consequently by a change of spelling).

Compare:

je lève [lɛːv]
la meule [mæl]
le chien [[1ē]

nous levons [ləvɔ]. le moulin [mulɛ̃]. le chenil [ʃəni].

§ 31. The chief vowel-changes are the following:

(The stressed vowel is in **thick** type, the corresponding unstressed yowel is in *italics*.)

Stressed.

ı. [ε] j'esp**è**re

je lève j'appelle je jette faire

ii. [ɛ] or [e]
mer, sel
père, mère
contraire
je sais [se]

iii. [je] or [jɛ]

pied

ciel

ils tiennent
j'acquiers

Unstressed.

[e] or [ə]
nous espérons
je levais
vous appelez
nous jetons
je ferai

[a]
marin, salé
parrain, marraine
contrarier
nous savons

[e] or [ə]

· pédestre

céleste

nous tenous

nous acquérons

PHONETIC CHANGES, ETC.

[ə] or [e] iv. [wa] moi, toi, soi me, te, se vous devez ie dois nous recevions je recolve loi légal buvant, je buvais N.B.—ie bois (formerly: bevant, je bevais) v. [œ] or [ø] [u] nous mourons ie meurs ils voulaient ils veulent douloureux douleur labourer labeur iouer ieu je pouvais je peux

- § 82. From what precedes it will be seen that in ordinary spelling, vowel-changes may be marked in three ways:
 - i. by a change of letter, as in:

mer, marin,

je meurs, nous mourons.

ii. by a grave accent, as in:

je lève, nous levons; nous achetons.

iii. by a double consonant, as in:

j'appelle, nous appelons; je jette, nous jetons.

§ 88. A grave accent or a double consonant may also be used to show that a vowel (whether stressed or unstressed) has an open sound.

This is always done when the vowel of the following syllable is a mute e. Examples:

il g∂lera	[ʒɛlra]	bonne	[bon]
la fermi∂re	[fermje:r]	ce <i>tt</i> e	[sɛt]
J'appellerai	[apɛlre]	j e je <i>tt</i> erai	[3ctre]
chrétienne	[kretjen]	sotte	[sot]
ils tiennent	[tjen]		•

§ 34. The vowel [ə] and the mute e (cf. § 11).

The term *mute* e is accurate only when e is **not pronounced** at all. When it is pronounced (however slightly) it is a mistake to call it mute, as many people persist in doing. It should be called a neutral e, or simply an e (pronounce $[\infty]$).

- i. The following are the cases in which e is never pronounced:
 - (a) final mute e: chos(e) [fo:z], donn(e) [don], fair(e) [fe:r], etc.
 - (b) mute e before a vowel: jeun(e) homme [3œnom], bonn(e) amie [bonami].
 - N.B.—After a verb in the imperative, the e of le is always pronounced, even before a vowel: donnez-le à mon frère [dɔnelø]. Note also: le onze [ləɔ̃:z], le onzième [ləɔ̃zjɛm].
 - (c) mute e after a vowel; pai(e)rai [pere], pri(e)rai [prire], tu(e)rai [tyre], vi(e) heureuse [viœrø:z].
 - (d) mute e between two consonants: aim(e)rai [emre], chaud(e)ment [fodmā], mad(e)moiselle [madmwazel], om(e)lette [omlet], sûr(e)té [syrte].

Au d(e)là [odla], au r(e)voir [orvwa:r], la p(e)louse [laplu:z], est-c(e) vrai [ɛsvrɛ], sans l(e) sou [sālsu], tout l(e) monde [tulmɔ̃:d], tu m(e) dis [tymdi], va t(e) coucher [vatkuse].

When there are several s's in succession, they cannot all be mute, for there would be nothing left but consonants. The usual practice is to drop one ϵ out of two: Je l(e) sais [3olse]. Je n(e) le sais pas [3olsepa], c(e) que je n(e) te d(e)mand(e) pas [skojontodmādpa], Est-c(e) que j(e) sais? [eskojse]. (The j is devocalised before s. Cf. § 41.)

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ii. Law of the three consonants: When e is preceded by two consonants and followed by a third, it must always be pronounced. If it were dropped, the result would be a group of three consonants which would be difficult, if not impossible, to pronounce.

Examples: brebis [brobi], entretenir [atrotnir], grenier

[grənje], justement [3ystəmā], quelquefois [kɛlkəfwa].

Charles douze [farloduiz], peur de rien [pærdorjē], pour me plaire [purmopleir], porte-plume [portoplym], presque pas [preskəpa], reste là [restola], notre père [notropeir], meuble neuf [mæblonæf].

§ 35. Final consonants are nearly always mute (ι ϵ . they are not sounded at all).

The only consonants that are generally pronounced in final position are:

i. c, as in lac [lak], bec [bek], sec [sek], etc.

Except: after a nasal, as in

blanc [bla], tronc [tr3]

and in certain words such as

tabac [taba], estomac [estoma], porc [poir].

ii. f, as in chef [sef], œuf [cef], bœuf [beef], vif [vif].

Except: in clef [kle], nerf [ner], cerf [ser], and in the plurals œufs [0], and boufs [bø].

iii l, as in nul [nyl], vol [vol], fil [fil] = thread.

Except: in certain words ending in -il, such as chenil [ʃom], fusil [fyzi], outil [uti], gentil [ʒɑ̃ti], persil [persi], sourcil [sursi], and also in the word fils [fis], meaning "son" or "sons," but the plural of fil, "thread," is pronounced [fil].

iv. r, as in pour [pur], peur [pœ:r], bonheur [bonœ:r], fer [fɛ:r], hiver [ivɛ:r], cher [fɛ:r], amer [ame:r], fier [fjɛ:r].

Except: in infinitives ending in -er, as porter [porte], and in the suffixes -er and -ier:

boucher [buse], jardinier [3ardinje], familier [familje]. N.B.—la dot [dot]; un os [cenos], des os [dezo]. § 86. In certain cases the final consonant is pronounced if the following word begins with a vowel. This is called llaison, because two words are bound (liés) together—pronounced as one word. For example:

avait_il [avetil], seront_ils [sərɔ̃til].

In *liaison* it frequently happens that the final consonant of the first word undergoes a change.¹

i. A voiced consonant may become voiceless (cf. § 41, ii.).
 For example, d becomes [t]:
 un grand homme = [@ gratom].

Or g becomes [k]:

un long_espoir=[@ lɔkespwa:r], Qu'un sang_impur=[k@ sɑkepy:r] Abreuve nos sillons! (La Marseillaise.)

un froid_hiver=[@ frwative:r].

ii. A voiceless consonant may become voiced (cf. § 41, i.).

Thus, the f of neuf is pronounced [v] before ans, heures neuf_ans = [nœva], neuf_heures [nœva:r].

Elsewhere, the f remains, e.g. neuf enfants [nœfā'fā].

In the same way, s and z become [z]:

vous_avez=[vuzave], un gros_homme=[@ grozom], des chevaux_arabes=[de (vozarab).

iii. The following final changes should be noted:

voiceless	voiced	mute
J'en ai six	six_ans	six francs
[sis]	[sizā]	[sifrā]
Ils sont dix	dix heures	dix francs
[dis]	[dizœ:r]	[difrā]
sept_et neuf	neuf_heures	neuf kilos
[nœf]	[nœvœ:r]	[nœkilo]
deux de plus	plus_aimable	plus haut
[plys]	[plyzemabl]	[plyo]

¹ These changes are not shown in writing, but they are always observed in speaking.

Similarly: voiceless mule

cinq_ans [sēkā] cinq francs [sēfrā]
sept_hommes [sētom] sept jours [sēzu:r]
huit_heures [uitœ:r] huit jours [uizu:r]
vingt_ans [vētā] vingt francs [vēfrā]

§ 87. Liaison must take place in the following cases:

- i. Between an article and the following noun: les_amis, des_enfants, aux_ouvriers, un_étudiant.
- ii. Between an adjective and the following noun: mon_ami, mon bon_ami, ces_arbres, vingt_ans, petit_oiseau, le premier_avril, d'autres_idées.
- iii. Between a pronoun and a verb: Nous_avons, on_appelle, il_est, j'en_arrive.
- iv. Between an auxiliary verb and a participle or adjective: Il est_occupé, nous sommes_arrivés, tu es_obstiné, il avait_été, je suis_heureux.
 - v. Between a preposition, adverb or conjunction and the following word: dans_une heure, sans_argent, en_été, chez_eux, devant_eux, très_occupé, bien_aimable, trop_aimable, quand_il viendra [kātil], mais encore.

N.B —There can never be liaison between et and the following word.

§ 38. What is called aspiration does not exist in French The letters called *mute* h and aspirate h do not represent any sound.

What happens is that, if a word begins with a so-called mute h, the preceding word is written and pronounced as before a vowel (i.e., with elision or liaison) But if it begins with a so-called aspirate h, the preceding word is written and pronounced as before a consonant (i.e., without elision or liaison).

Compare :

l'habitant	[labitã]	le hareng	[ləarā]
l'huître	[lqitr]	le huit	[ləyit]
de l'héroïsme	[dəleroism]	du héros	[dyero]
à l'honneur	[alonœ:r]	au hasard	[oaza:r]
à l'heure	[alœ:r]	à la hâte	[alaq:t]
les hommes	[lezəm]	les homards	[leomair]
d'habitude	[dabityd]	de haut	[oeb]
j'hésite	[ʒezit]	je hais	[39ε]
mon humeur	[monymœ:r]	mon hameau	[mɔ̃amo]

N.B. – le onze [ləɔ̃iz], le onzième [ləɔ̃izjɛm], la ouate [lawat]. These words are pronounced as though they began with a so-called as pirate h.

§ 89. Changes of consonants frequently occur at the end of words. For example:

i.
$$v$$
 for f (cf. § 41, i):

vive is the feminine of vif active ,, actif brève ,, bref veuve ,, veuf

(Compare the English wives, plural of wife, and the German Weiber, plural of Weib [voip]).

ii. ch for c:

blanche is the feminine of blanc sèche sec

iii. gn for ng (see § 42, ii.).

§ 40. In many verbs, if the last letter of the stem is a consonant, it is dropped before the endings s or t.

Compare:

nous dorm-ons, but | je dors (for dorm-s) | il dort (for dorm-t) | nous sent-ons, but | je sens (for sent-s) | il sent (for sent-t)

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nous part-ons, but { je pars (for part-s) il part (for part-t) nous serv-ons, but { je sers (for serv-s) il sert (for serv-t) nous écriv-ons, but { j'éeris (for écriv-s) il éerit (for écriv-t) } Similarly: (ill dropped) nous bouill-ons, but { je bous (for bouill-s) il bout (for bouill-t) ill is really a single sound []]; bouillons=[bujõ] (cf § 42)
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§ 41. i. Vocalisation is the change from a voiceless to a voiced sound, as in: vil—vive (cf. §§ 86, ii. and 89, i.);

or from a consonant to a vowel, as in:

au for à le cieux, plural of ciel du for de le fou, instead of fol chevaux, plural of cheval je vaux, present of valoir

- ii. Devocalisation is the change from a voiced to a voiceless sound, that is to say:
 - either (a) when a voiced consonant becomes voiceless $(cf. \S 36, i.)$;
 - or (b) when one speaks in a whisper (all sounds then become voiceless, cf. § 3).
- iii. The most frequent cause of vocalisation or devocalisation is what is called assimilation.

When a consonant is immediately followed by another, either naturally, as b s in observer, or owing to the fall of an intervening mute e, as d c in méd(e)cin, v t in sav(e)tier (cf. § 34, i. d), these two consonants become assimilated, that is to say they are both voiced or both voiceless.

In French, assimilation is generally regressive (i.e., it works backward)—it is the second consonant that modifies the first. Thus, the b in observer, the d in médecin, the v in savetier, become devocalised under the influence of the voiceless sound that follows, and we pronounce [opserve], [mets $\tilde{\epsilon}$], [saftje].

Similarly, the p in cap vert, the c in avec Jean, the second t in $t\hat{e}t(e)$ dure, become vocalised under the influence of the voiced sound that follows, and we pronounce [kabver], [aveg3 \tilde{a}], [te:ddy:r].

In English, assimilation is generally **progressive** 1 (i.e., it works forward)—it is the *first* consonant that modifies the second. Contrast the pronunciation of "cats" [kæts] with that of "dogs" [dogz]. In the last word, the g, which is voiced, has vocalised the s into z.

Contrast also the pronunciation of the English "observe" [əbzə:v] with that of the French observer [opserve].

Progressive assimilation is very rare in French. It is found:

(a) in the group ch+v, where v becomes f.

Examples: un ch(e)val [@ffal], ach(e)ver [affe].

(b) in isolated cases such as subsister [sybziste], where s becomes z.

N.B.—The word second [səgɔ̃] becomes [zgɔ̃] after a word ending in a vowel: le second [ləzgɔ̃], un second [œzgɔ̃].

The letter x is pronounced [gz] before a voiced sound, but [ks] before a voiceless. Examples:

exact [egzakt], exiler [egzile], exotique [egzotik].

But: excuse [eksky:z], expérience [eksperjais], externe [ekstern].

¹ Though regressive assimulation also exists—e.g., gooseberry [guzbəri].

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§ 42. "Consonnes mouillées." 1
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i. When l is mouillée, it is written ill (il when final) and pronounced [j]. Examples:

The l of the stem val- (valoir) is mouillée in valll-e [vaj];

The l of the stem all- (aller) is mouillée in all-e [ai];

The l of the stem fall- (falloir) is mouillec in faill-e [fai];

The l of the stem veul- (vouloir) is mouillée in veuill-e [vœi].

Similarly, bétail is pronounced [betai];

travail [travai]: soleil [solei].

N.B.—The syllable ill is not mouillée:

(a) at the beginning of a word, as in illégal [ilegal], illusion [ilvzj5];

(b) in a small number of words, such as:

ville [vil] and village [vila:3],

mille [mil], tranquille [trākil] and their compounds, idvlle [idil], vaudeville [vodvil],

and the town names Lille [lil] and Séville [sevil].

ii. When n is mouillée, it is written gn and pronounced [n]. For example, the feminine of malin is maligne [malin]. n mouillée is only found before a vowel.

Before a consonant, or in final position, one finds:

(a) Sometimes ng. Thus:

la poignée [pwane] and are derived from poing [pwe] le poignet [pwanε]

(b) In most cases, only n (the g has been dropped).

Compare:

soigner and soin (for soing) éloigner and loin (for loing) besoigneux and besoin (for besoing) plaignant and je plains (for plaing-s) joignant and je joins (for joing-s)

¹ There is no equivalent expression in English The term "liquid." given by some dictionaries, is inaccurate and misleading. The socalled l'and n mouillées are in reality palatals. 25

III. THE ARTICLE

§ 43. The definite article is: le, la, les, for the nominative and accusative.¹

The genitive and dative are formed by means of the prepositions de and a.

de le is contracted into du (cf. § 41).

de les	,,	des.
à le	,,	au.
à lcs	••	aux.

1. Singular

(a) Without elision 2 (before a consonant or aspirate h^3).

			masculine			feminine	
nom gen. dat.	and acc.	du	père	du	hameau	la mère de la mère à la mère	de la haie

(b) With elision (before a vowel or mute h).

For both genders

noni	and acc.	l'enfant	l'homme
ge n .		de l'enfant	de l'homme
dut.		à l'enfant	à l'homme

ii. Plural

For both genders

(a) Without liaison (before a consonant or aspirate h).

les parents	les héros
des parents	des héros
aux parents	aux héros

The nominative marks the subject of the verb. The accusative marks the direct object. The genitive generally indicates possession. The dative marks the indirect object

^{*} Cf. § 26, vi. * Cf. § 38.

(b) With liaison 1 (before a vowel or mute h).

nom. and acc. les_amis | les_habitants | gen. | des_habitants | dat. | aux_amis | aux_habitants |

§ 44. The indefinite article is: un, une.

The genitive and dative are formed by means of the prepositions de and d.

	masculine	feminine
nom. and acc. gen. dat.	un garçon d'un garçon à un garçon	une fille d'une fille a une fille

§ 45. A part of a whole is indicated by the preposition de and the definite article (with the usual contractions, cf. § 43)

masculine	feminine	plural
du pain	de la viande	des légumes
du homard	de la houille	des haricots
de l'argent	de l'eau	des_habits
de l'honneur	de l'huile	

SYNTAX

- § 46. The definite article is used—
- i. When the noun has a general sense:

Le charbon est cher cet hiver (tout le charbon). J'aime beaucoup les fleurs (toutes les fleurs).

N.B.—The adjective tout always precedes the article

ii. Before abstract nouns:

La foi, l'espérance, la charité.

iii. Before proper names qualified by an adjective, or by a noun used adjectivally.

Le petit Pierre, le vieux Leroux, le fermier Pichon. le docteur Dubois, le général Bonaparte.

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iv. Before names of countries:

La France, l'Angleterre, la Russie.

Except after the preposition en: 1

Nous sommes en Angleterre.

Nous irons en France pour les vacances.

and sometimes after the preposition de:

Il revient de France

- v Before parts of the body.
 - (a) after the verb avoir:

Il a les yeux bleus Il avait le cœur gros.

Elle avait les cheveux blonds.

(b) after any other verb, provided that the person is the subject of that verb:

Il secoua la tête Maurice tendit la main.

or is represented by a dative pronoun:

Je lui ai serré la main.

Except when the noun is qualified by an adjective Compare:

Il tendit la main.

Il tendit sa petite main.

vi. In certain expressions of weight or measure:

Le café de Bourbon vaut quatre francs la livre. Le vin ordinaire coîte deux francs la bouteille

- § 47. The article is never used:
 - i. In certain adjectival expressions (i.e. equivalent to an adjective) consisting of a noun preceded by the preposition de:

Un conseil d'ami (=amical).

Un dîner de roi (=royal).

Les vins de France (-français), but les ennemis de la France.

Instead of en, use d and the definite article before masculine or plural names of countries: Mon frère est au Brésil. Nous irons au Canada. Il demeure au Japon. Il est mort au Mexique. Je suis né aux États-Unis. Mes parents sont aux Indes. Cf. §§ 51, v. and 52, u.

ARTICLE §§ .46–4:

ii. Before a word indicating profession or nationality, if the verb is être:

Il est avocat. Son père avait été ferimer Nous sommes français.

Except when the subject of être is the pronoun co.
C'est un avocat. C'est un Français

- iii. In a large number of verbal expressions; avoir faim, avoir honte, avoir conscience, avoir raison, prendre plaisir, perdre courage, faire honneur, faire connaissance, faire attention, livrei bataille, etc
- iv. Before nouns in apposition: Le jeudi, jour de congé.
 Ce jeune homme, ami de mon frère.

§ 48. The preposition de is used, without article:

i. In negative sentences:

Je n'ai pas d'argent. Pierre n'avait plus de courage

ii. When the noun is preceded by an adjective:

De grands arbres.

De bonnes choses

Except when the adjective and the noun form a single compound expression. In that case the article is used

des petits pains, des petits pois.

iii. After expressions of quantity:

Un peu de viande. Moins de bruit. Beaucoup de gens. Une bouteille de vin Une cinquantame de pas. Un troupeau de vaches.

Exception: The article must be used after bien: Bien des gens. Bien du courage.

(Note: Quelque chose de gentil. Je ne sais rien de nouveau. Il n'y a personne de blessé. And cf. such Latin expressions as quid novi, nihil boni.)

IV. GENDER OF NOUNS

- § 49. French has only two genders, the masculine and the feminine.
- [N.B.—Nouns which were masculine in Latin are generally masculine in French. Nouns which were feminine in Latin are generally feminine in French.

Nouns which were neuter in Latin are generally masculine in French, except certain nouns which were more frequently used in their plural than in their singular form—such as folia, poma, arma, opera, etc. These were mistaken, in popular Latin, for singular nouns of the first declension like mensa- and accordingly became feminine in French: une feuille, une pomme, une arme, une œuvre.]

§ 50. There is only one infallible rule for learning genders. It is this: Never learn a new word without its article.

Do not learn couvercle, but 10_couvercle;

- ,, tapisserie, ,, la_tapisserie;
- .. armoire, .. une_armoire.

The rules found in reference grammars are subject to so many exceptions that they are of very little practical use. The following, which offer few exceptions, may be helpful:

§ 51. Masculine are:

- Nouns indicating persons or animals of the male sex:
 le roi, le cheval, de chien
 - **Except:** (a) a few military terms generally derived from Italian words in a (hence the gender), such as: la sentinelle (sentinela), la vedette (vedetta), la recrue (recluta), etc.
 - (b) a few terms which may be applied to either sex, such as: la victime, la personne, la connaissance, la dupe.

GENDER OF NOUNS

 ii. Names of trees: le pommier le chêne, le peuplier, le bouleau, le hêtre.

Except: la vigne, une aubépine.

- iii. Names of days, months, seasons and points of the compass: le lundi, le printemps, l'hiver, le nord, etc.
- iv. Adverbs and infinitives used as nouns: 1e bien, 1e mal, 1e déjeuner, 1e pouvoir, etc
- v Names of countries not ending in e mute: le Canada, le Brésil, le Japon, le Portugal, etc.
- vi. Nouns ending in -ent: un accident, un événement, un logement.

Except: la dent, la jument

vn. Nouns ending in -age: le courage, le voyage, le ménage.

Except: la cage, une image, la nage, la page, la plage, la rage.

viii. Nouns ending in -eau: le bateau, le chapeau, le manteau.

Except: une eau, la peau.

ix. Nouns ending in -ier: le cahier, le jardinier.

§ 52. Feminine are:

- 1. Nouns denoting persons or animals of the female sex: la reine, la mère, la vache, la brebis.
- ii. Names of countries ending in e mute : la France, la Russie, l'Espagne, la Grèce

Except: le Mexique.

- iii. Nouns ending in -aison, -sion, -tion, -xion: la raison, la division, la passion, la flation, la réflexion.
- iv. Nouns ending in -ance, -anse, -ence and -ense: la chance, la danse, la patience, la prudence, la défense, etc.

 Except: le silence (Latin silentium).
- v Nouns ending in ée, -ie, -ue: une année, une assemblée, la dictée, la vie, la sortie, la roue, la rue

Except : le lycée, le musée, le génie, un incendie, un parapluie.

vi. Nouns ending in -té, -tié: la charité, la pitié.

Except : le comité, le côté, le traité, le pâté, un été.

vii. Abstract nouns ending in -eur: la peur, la douleur, la chaleur.

Except: le bonheur, le malheur, un honneur, le labeur.

viii. Nouns ending in a double consonant + e mute, as:

-fie: la griffe, une étoffe.

-lle: la balle, une échelle, la feuille, la ville, la grille, la colle, la bulle.

Except: le mille.

-mme: la gamme, la pomme.

Except: le gramme.

-nne: la canne, la colonne.

-ppe: la grappe, la grippe, une enveloppe.

-rre: la barre, la terre.

Except: le beurre, le tonnerre.

-sse: la chasse, la sagesse, la saucisse, la brosse, la mousse.

Except: le carrosse, le colosse.

-tte: la patte, une assiette, la botte, la hutte.

Except : le squelette.

N.B.—The noun chose is feminine, but the pronoun quelque chose is masculine (cf. § 48, iii.).

§ 58. A special note should be made of the following:

le crêpe (crape), qu'on porte quand on est en deuil.

la crêpe (pancake), qu'on fait frire dans la poêle.

le garde (keeper), le gardien, celui qui garde.

la garde (sick nurse), celle qui garde (les malades).

le livre (book). Je lis dans un livre.

la livre (pound). Une livre de thé, de café.

le manche (handle) de mon couteau

la manche (sleeve) de mon habit.

la Manche (the Channel), la mer qu'on traverse pour aller en France.

le mort (dead man), l'homme qui est mort.

la mort (death), la fin de la vie.

le mousse (ship boy), l'apprenti-marin.

la mousse (moss) qui pousse sur les arbres et sur les pierres.

le page (page-boy) du roi.

la page (page) du livre.

le poêle (stove) qui nous chauffe en hiver

la poèle (frying-pan), où on fait frire les crêpes et les pommes de terre.

le poste (post), la position.

la poste aux lettres (post office).

le somme (nap) - J'ai fait un bon somme, j'ai bien dormi.

la somme (sum) — Il a volé une somme d'argent à son patron.

le tour (turn) — C'est à moi de jouer, c'est mon tour.

(trick) - Il m'a joué un tour.

(walk) - Allons faire un tour dans le jardin.

la tour (tower) - La tour du château. La tour St Jacques

le vase (vase) où on met les fleurs.

la vase (mud) qui est au fond de la mare.

le voile (veil) de la mariée.

la voile (sail) du bateau.

V. PLURAL OF NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

- § 54. General rule: The plural is formed by adding s to the singular: le livre, les livres; le crayon, les crayons; la maison, les maisons.
- § 55. Nouns ending in -s, -x, or -x do not change in the plural:
 - le fils, les fils; le nez, les nez; la noix, les noix; un homme heureux, des hommes heureux.
 - § 56. Nouns ending in -al change -al into -aux (cf. § 41): le cheval, les chevaux; le général, les généraux.

Except: le bal, les bals; le carnaval, les carnavals; le chacal, les chacals.

Adjectives ending in -al generally follow the same rule: amical, amicaux; égal, égaux; nasal, nasaux.

Except: fatal, fatals; final, finals; naval, navals.

There are a certain number of these adjectives whose plural is uncertain: frugal, glacial, idéal, jovial, natal, théâtral, etc. It is safer to avoid using them in the plural.

§ 57. Nouns ending in -ail follow the general rule:

Le détail, les détails ; l'éventail, les éventails.

Except: le bail, les baix; le corail, les coraux; l'émail, les émaux; le soupirail, les soupiraux; le travail, les travaux; le vitrail, les vitraux.

§ 58. Nouns ending in -au, -eu, -œu take x instead of s: beau, beaux; le chapeau, les chapeaux; le feu, les feux; le vœu, les vœux.

Except: bleu, bleus.

§ 59. Nouns ending in -ou follow the general rule: Le trou, les trous; le sou, les sous.

Exceptions: The following nouns take x instead of s: le bijou, les bijoux; le caillou, les cailloux; le chou, les choux; le genou, les genoux; le hibou, les hiboux; le joujou, les joujoux; le pou, les poux.

§ 60. Note the plural of the following:

tout, tous; l'aīeul, les aloux, le ciel, les cloux; l'œil, les youx.

Bétail, a collective noun, has no plural; bestiaux, plural of the adjective bestial, is used instead.

N.B.—Certain nouns have a different meaning when used in the plural. Examples:

le ciseau (chisel)
le compas (mariner's compass)
le fer (iron)
le gage (pledge)
la lumière (light)
la lunette (telescope)
la vacance (vacancy)
les ciseaux (scissors)
les compas (dividers)
les fers (fellers)
les gages (wages)
les lumières (knowledge)
les lunettes (speciacles)

Compound nouns

§ 61. Compound nouns follow the general rule when they are written as one word:

un porteseuille, des porteseuilles, un pourboire, des pourboires; une grand'mère, des grand'mères

Except: Monsieur, Messieurs; Madame, Mesdames; un bonhomme, des bonshommes [bɔ̃·zɔm]; Mademoiselle, Mesdemoiselles; un gentilhomme [ʒɑ̃·tijɔm], des gentilshommes [ʒɑ̃·tizɔm].

- § 62. When the words are written separately, the following cases should be distinguished:
 - i. Two variable words, such as a noun and an adjective.

Both words stand in the plural:

un chou-fleur, des choux-fleurs; un chef-lieu, des chefs-lieux; un grand-père, des grands-pères.

ii. An invariable word (verb, adverb, preposition) followed by a variable word.

The first remains invariable, the second only stands in the plural:

un tire-bouchon, un cure-dent, une avant-garde, des tire-bouchons; des cure-dents; des avant-gardes.

(N.B.—un après-midi, des après-midi.)

iii. Two words joined by a preposition. The meaning shows which of the two should stand in the plural.

In most cases it is the first word:

Un arc-en-ciel, des arcs-en-ciel (There are several arcs, but only one ciel.) Un bateau à vapeur, des bateaux à vapeur

(Several baleaux, but not several vapeurs.)
(N.B.—Un timbre-poste, des timbres-poste (for timbres

de poste. The preposition is understood.)
But we write:

des tête-à-tête (conversations in which persons are face to face; each person has only one face);

des pied-à-terre [pjetate:r]—occasional lodgings, places where on met le pied à terre.

VI. FEMININE OF NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

§ 63. General rule: To form the feminine, add e mute to the masculine:

grand, grande; petit, petite.

§ 64. Words ending in -e mute in the masculine, such as riche, pauvre, honnête, do not change:

un homme riche, une femme riche.

- § 65. Words ending in -gu take e with diæresis (cf. § 26, v.): aigu, aiguë [egy]; contigu, contiguë [kɔ̃tigy].
- § 66. Words ending in -f change f into v and add e mute (cf. § 39, i.):
 - le Juif, la Juive; actif, active; neuf, neuve; veuf, veuve.
 - § 67. Words ending in -x change x into s[z] and add e mute: un époux, une épouse; heureux heureuse.
- § 68. Words ending in -er [e] take a grave accent and add e mute (cf. § 33):

le jardinier, la jardinière; dernier, dernière.

§ 69. Words ending in -et double the t and add e mute (cf. § 33):

sujet, sujette; net, nette.

Except: complet, complète; inquiet, inquiète; discret, discrète: secret, secrète.

§ 70. Words ending in -el, -ell, -en, -on, double the l or n and add e mute (cf. § 33):

cruel, cruelle; pareil, pareille; le chien, la chienne; chrétien, chrétienne; bon, bonne; le baron, la baronne.

§ 71. A few adjectives have an older form, used before a noun beginning with a vowel or h mute. The feminine is made from that older form:

masculine: beau fou vieux mou nouveau older form: fol mol vieil bel nouvel feminine: belle nouvelle folle molle vieille Examples: un beau garçon un vieux sergent mon bel ami un vieil imbécile un hel homme un vieil habit une vieille femme une belle journée

§ 72. Words ending in -eur.

These words form their feminine in four different ways:

i. Words like mcilleur, majeur, mineur, intérieur, extérieur, etc., follow the general rule:

meilleur, meilleure; intérieur, intérieure.

N.B. — Plusieurs is invariable: Plusieurs hommes, plusieurs femmes.

ii. Words formed by adding the suffix -eur² to the stem of a present participle change -eur into -euse:

lire, lis-(ant), liseur, liseuse (celui, celle, qui lit); mentir, ment-(ant), menteur, menteuse (celui, celle qui ment);

blanchir, blanchiss-(ant), blanchisseur, blanchisseur, seuse (celui, celle qui blanchit);

pêcher, pêch-(ant), pêcheur, pêcheuse (celui, celle qui pêche des poissons).

¹ These words are derived from the accusative of Latin comparatives in -or meliorem, maiorem, minorem, etc.

¹ This suffix indicates the person who performs the action expressed by the verb.

FEMININE OF NOUNS

- iii. A few words change -eur into -eresse: pécheur, pécheresse (sinner, celui, celle qui commet un péché); vengeur, vengeresse.
- iv. A few words ending in -teur change -teur into -trice : acteur, actrice; protecteur, protectrice; lecteur, lectrice.
 - § 73. The following feminines should be carefully noted:

I. Adjectives

bas, basse las, lasse gras, grasse gros, grosse épais, épaisse faux, fausse roux, rousse doux, douce frais, fraîche blanc, blanche franc, franche
sec, sèche
grec, grecque
turc, turque
public, publique
nul, nulle
gentil [3ā*ti], gentille [3ā*ti;]
sot, sotte
long, longue
malin, maligne (cf § 42, ii.)

favori, favorite

ii. Persons

ambassadeur, ambassadirice compagnon, compagne empereur, impératrice fils, fille frère, sœur gouverneur, gouvernante le héros, l'héroine homme, femme jumeau, jumelle nevcu, mèce oncle, tante parrain, marraine paysan, paysanne père, mère roi, reine serviteur, servante

abbé, abbesse comte, comtesse dieu, déesse docteur, doctoresse duc, duchesse hôte, hôtesse maître, maîtresse nègre, négresse prêtre, prêtresse prince, princesse traître, traîtresse

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lii. Animals

âne, ânesse bélier, brebis bœuf, vache bouc, chèvre chat, chatte cheval, jument chien, chienne cerf, biche coq, poule faisan, poule faisane lion, lionne loup, louve mulet, mule perroquet, perruche porc, truie singe, guenon

tigre, tigresse

N.B.—Certain nouns denoting professions have no feminine. Examples:

Un auteur, une femme auteur. Un poète, une femme poète. Un peintre, une femme peintre. Un sculpteur, une femme sculpteur.

The names of certain animals have no feminine:
Un éléphant, un éléphant femelle.

Others have no masculine:

Une baleine, une baleine mâle. Une souris, une souris mâle.

SYNTAX

§ 74. Adjectives agree, in gender and number, with the noun they qualify: un petit garçon, une petite fille.

Le ciel est bleu. La mer est bleue. Les rives de la Loire sont basses.

N.B.—When the pronoun vous refers to one person only, the adjective is in the singular:

Madame, vous êtes heureuse.

§ 75. If one adjective is used to qualify several nouns, it stands in the plural:

Pierre et le fermier étaient amis.

Ma tante et ma cousine sont arrivées hier.

§ 76. If an adjective qualifies several nouns of different genders, it stands in the masculine plural:

Mon frère et ma sœur sont petits. Le ciel et la mer sont bleus.

§ 77. Adjectives which precede the word gens stand in the feminine plural: les bonnes gens, les vieilles gens. But: ces gens sont bons.

The adjectives *nu* and *demi* remain invariable when they **precede** the noun, but agree with it when they follow:

nu-tête, tête nue;

nu-pieds, pieds nus;

une demi-heure, une heure et demie.

Compound adjectives of colour, such as gris perle, bleu foncé, châtain clair, etc., remain invariable: une robe gris perle, des cheveux châtain clair.

Place of Adjectives

§ 78. General rule: Adjectives are placed after the noun they qualify:

Une maison neuve... Un homme riche Un livre intéressant.

- § 79. Exceptions: The following adjectives are generally placed before the noun:
 - bon, mauvais, grand, gros, jeune, joli, long, haut, méchant, petit, beau, vaste, vieux, vilain, sot.
 - ii. Adjectives used in a figurative or emphatic sense:
 Un triste jour. De noires pensées. Un irréparable désastre.

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N.B.—When several adjectives qualify the same noun, they are generally placed after it and joined by a conjunction; un orage violent et prolongé; un homme injuste et cruel; une rivière étroite mais profonde.

But they may precede the noun if it is desired to lay emphasis upon them: une sanglante et terrible guerre.

If an adjective is one of those mentioned in the list § 79, i., it is placed before, and the other adjective after the noun: un grand garçon maigre; une haute tour carrée; un bon vin blanc.

§ 80. Certain adjectives have a different meaning according as they are placed before or after their noun;

Un ancien capitaine (a former captain). Le plus ancien capitaine (the senior captain). Une ville ancienne (an old town)

Un brave homme (bon, honnête). Un homme brave (courageux).

Un certain jour. Une guérison certaine (sûre).

Mon cher amı (que j'aime). Du vin cher (qui coûte cher).

Le dernier lundi du mois. Lundi dernier.

Un franc coquin (qui est vraiment un coquin). Une personne franche (qui dit la vérité).

Un grand homme (célèbre). Un homme grand (de haute taille).

Un méchant cheval (a wretched horse). Un cheval méchant (a vicious horse). Un pauvre homme (malheureux, souffrant) Un homme pauvre (qui n'a pas d'argent).

Mon propre frère (mon frère à moi). Une assiette propre (qui n'est pas sale)

Un triste personnage (qui n'est pas respectable). Un enfant triste (qui a du chagrin).

Un vrai conte (ce qui est vraiment un conte, i e. ce qui n'est pas vrai).
Une histoire vraie (qui est vraie)

VII. COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

§ 81. The comparative of superiority is formed by putting plus before the adjective and que after:

Il est plus grand que moi.

§ 82. The superlative of superiority is formed by putting the definite article before the comparative:

Cette maison est la plus belle de la ville (not dans la ville).

§ 83. The comparative and superlative of *inferiority* are formed by substituting moins for plus:

Il est moins grand que moi.

C'est lui qui est le moins grand.

Cette maison est la moins belle de la ville.

§ 84. The following adjectives have special forms derived from Latin:

bon meilleur le meilleur mauvais pire le pire petit moindre le moindre

- N.B.—Mauvais and petit have also a regular comparative and superlative (plus mauvais, le plus mauvais—plus petit, le plus petit)—but one can NEVER say plus bon.
- § 85. The comparative of equality is formed by putting aussi before the adjective and que after:

Il est aussi grand que moi.

But in negative sentences, si is used rather than aussi: Il n'est pas si grand que moi.

Syntax

§ 86. After comparatives (except that of equality) the verb is preceded by no, because a negative is implied:

Il est plus grand que je ne croyais. (Je ne croyais pas qu'il était si grand.)

§ 87. Before numbers, plus de, moins de, are used instead of plus que, moins que:

Il a perdu plus de vingt francs.

Except when the phrase implies comparison with an action performed by another person. Thus we shall say:

Il a mangé plus de deux douzaines d'huîtres; but :

Il a mangé plus que deux personnes (ne mangent).

- § 88. The following constructions should be carefully noted:
 - (a) Il a deux ans de plus que moi.
 - (b) Il est plus âgé que moi de deux ans. Il est de beaucoup plus âgé que moi.
 - (c) Vous êtes d'autant plus coupable que vous aviez été prévenu.

Le vin est d'autant meilleur qu'il est plus vieux.

- (d) Il devient de plus en plus bête, et de moins en moins attentif.
- (e) Plus on est de fous, plus on rit.
 Plus j'essaie, moins je réussis.
 Plus on est riche, plus on doit être charitable.
 Plus le vin est vieux, meilleur il est.

VIII. NOUNS OF NUMBER, AND NUMERAL **ADJECTIVES**

§ 89. The Cardinal numbers are:

I	un	23	vingt-trois, etc.
2	deux	30	trente
3	trois	31	trente et un
4	quatre	32	trente-deux, etc.
5	cinq 1	40	quarante
6	six 1	41	quarante et un
7	sept 1	42	quarante-deux, etc.
	huit 1	50	cinquante
9	neuf 1	51	cinquante et un
	dıx 1		cinquante-deux, etc.
II	onze	60	soixante
12	douze	6 1	soixante et un
13	treize	62	soixante-deux, etc.
14	quatorze	70	soixante-dix
15	quinze	71	soixante et onze 2
16	seize	72	soixante-douze, etc.
17	dix-sept 1	80	quatre-vingts
18	dix-huit 1	81	quatre-vingt-un [katrəvē@]
19	dix-neuf 1		quatre-vingt-deux, etc.
20	vingt 1	9 0	quatre-vingt-dix
21	vingt et un [vētece]	91	quatre-vingt-onze [katrəvēɔ:z]
	vingt-deux [vēddø]		quatre-vingt-douze, etc.
	100 cent		200 deux cents
	101 cent un [sãæ]		201 deux cent un
			202 deux cent deux, etc.
	300 trois cents		100,000 cent mille
	400 quatre cents		1,000,000 un million
	1,000 mille		1,000,000,000 un milliard
	•		• • •

¹ For the pronunciation, see § 36, m

^{*} Sorxante et onze is the last number in which the conjunction et occurs. Cf. quatre-vingt-uit, quatre-vingt-onze, cent un, cent onze, etc.

NUMERALS §§ 89–93

§ 90. Ordinal numbers. These are obtained by adding -ième to the cardinal numbers:

trois, troisième, dix, dixième [diziem], etc.

If the cardinal number ends with an e, the e is dropped:

quatre, quatrième, onze, onzième, etc

- § 91. The following peculiarities should be noted:
 - i. The ordinal adjective corresponding to un is premier [promje] or [promje], but one must say vingt et unième, trente et unième, etc. (not vingt-premier).
 - ii. An alternative form to deuxième is second [sog3] or [zg3], but we must say vingt-deuxième, etc. (not vingt-second).
 - iii. The ordinal for cinq is cinquième;

,, neuvième (cf. §§ 36, ii. and 39).

§ 92. Fractions are expressed by means of the ordinal numbers:

²/₅ = deux cinquièmes, § = cinq huitièmes.

Except: 1 = la demie (or la moitié);

=le tiers:

 $\frac{1}{2} = le quart.$

- § 93. The following nouns of number should be noted:
 - Collective: une hultaine, une dizaine, une douzaine, une quinzaine, une vingtaine, etc., une centaine, un millier, un million.
 - ii. Multiplicative: le double, le triple, le quadruple, le quintuple, le décuple, le centuple.

Syntax

§ 94. Cardinal nouns and adjectives of number are invariable.

Exceptions:

- i. un becomes une when referring to a feminine noun: une fois, vingt et une fois, etc.
- ii. vingt and cent take an s when they are multiplied, and not followed by another number:

quatre-vingts, but quatre-vingt-dix; deux cents, but deux cent deux.

(But see also § 95, iii.)

N.B.—Mille takes an s for the plural when it means "miles," but never when it means "thousands," e.g.:

quatre milles, four miles, but quatre mille, four thousand.

In dates from 1001 to 1999 it is written mil—e.g., mil huit cent quatre-vingt-dix. (But: l'an mille, l'an deux mille.) The form dix-neuf cent . . . is, however, generally preferred to mil neuf cent . . .

- § 95. Cardinal numbers are used instead of ordinal:
 - i. In dates:

le deux décembre, le vingt et un janvier, etc.

Except "the first," which is always le premier—e.g.: le premier mai, le premier juin, etc.

- ii. After the names of sovereigns:
 Louis seize, Napoléon trois, Charles douze.
 (But Charles premier, Napoléon premier.)
- iii. To indicate the number of a page, a chapter, a house, a ticket, etc.:

numéro un, page deux cent (without s), chapitre six, paragraphe quatre-vingt (without s).

NUMERALS §§ 94-97

§ 96. To express the time of day, the French always name the hour first, and then add or subtract the number of minutes:

Une heure, deux heures, etc.

Deux heures cinq, six heures dix, sept heures vingt, etc. Trois heures et quart, quatre heures et demie.

Cinq heures moins cinq, huit heures moins dix, etc., neuf heures moins un quart.

N.B.—Instead of douze heures we must say:

(for midday) midi, (for midnight) minuit.

(midi dix, midi et demi, minuit moins cinq, ctc.)

§ 97. To express dimension, either avoir or être may be used; the former is generally preferred:

Cette chambre a huit mètres de long.

Cette chambre est longue de huit mètres.

N.B.—Cinq mètres de long sur six de large (five by six).

IX. PERSONAL PRONOUNS

§ 98. There are two kinds of personal pronouns, the weak (or unstressed) and the strong (or stressed).

The weak pronouns are always directly connected with the verb, either as subjects or as objects.

The strong pronouns are generally (though not always) independent of the verb.

§ 99. Weak (or unstressed) pronouns:

	nominative	accusative	dative
singular	je tu il elle	me te le	me te }lui
plural	nous	nous	nous
7 · · · · ·	ils elle s	} les	leur

§ 100. We must add, for the third person:

- i. The reflexive pronoun se (accusative and dative).
- ii. en (=de cela, de lui, d'elle, d'eux, d'elles).
- iii. y (-à cela, à lui, à elle, à eux, à elles).

§ 101. Strong (or stressed) pronouns:

singular	plural
moi	nous
toi	vous
lui	eux
elle	elles

Reflexive pronoun: soi.

The genitive and dative are formed with the prepositions do and à.

§ 102. Emphatic forms:

moi-même	nous-mêmes
toi-même	vous-mêmes
lui-même	eux-mêmes
elle-même	. elles-mêmes

Reflexive pronoun: soi-même.

When the pronoun vous refers to only one person, même is in the singular: Vous viendrez vous-même (cf. § 74, N.B.).

Syntax

§ 103. Weak pronouns used objectively are placed immediately before the verb:

Je le vois. Nous lui écrirons. Je ne vous parle pas.

§ 104. When there are several objective pronouns, we must first ascertain the answer to the question:

WHICH IS THE ACCUSATIVE (the direct object)?

If the accusative is le, la, or les, the pronouns are placed before the verb in the following order:

1	2	3	4	5
me, te, se nous, vous	{ accusative } le, la, les }	lui, leur	у	e n

Examples: Il me l'a dit. Je vous les enverrai. Nous le lui avons promis. Il nous en a parlé. Je l'y ai conduit. Je ne le leur ai pas promis. Les leur avez-vous donnés? Il se l'est reproché.

- § 105. When the verb is in the affirmative imperative:
 - i. The pronouns are placed after the verb.
 - ii. The accusative precedes the dative.
 - iii. Me and te are replaced by mol and tol (except before en and y).

Examples: Écoutez-mol. Suivez-le.

Envoyez-la-lui. Apportez-le-nous. Donnez-m'en. Conduisez-m'y.

But if the imperative is negative, the pronouns come before the verb in the usual order:

Ne m'écoutez pas. Ne la lui envoyez pas. Ne m'en donnez pas. Ne nous l'apportez pas. Ne m'y conduisez pas.

§ 106. When the accessative is another pronoun than k, la, or les, the accusative alone is placed before the verb. The dative follows the verb, and is expressed by a strong pronoun preceded by d. Examples:

Qui vous a envoyé à moi?

Le docteur Dubois me recommande à vous.

Fiez-vous à moi. Ne te fie pas à elle.

Il se présenta à lui. Ne nous livrez pas à eux.

§ 107. Strong pronouns are also used:

i. After a preposition:

Chacun pour soi. Il travaille pour lui. Restez avec eux. Ne partez pas sans mol. Ce livre n'est pas à toi.

ii. After c'est:

C'est mol qui l'ai fait. C'est lui qui a parlé.

§ 108. When it is desired to *emphasise* a pronoun that is the subject of a verb, the strong form is used in addition to the weak form:

Moi, je pars. Toi, tu restes. Il l'a fait lui-même.

If there are two or more subjects, the weak pronoun is in the plural:

Lui et moi nous partirons demain

Ton père et toi vous partirez avec nous

¹ Note that soi always refers to an indefinite, never to a personal pronoun: chacun pour soi; on ne doit pas parler de soi. But we say: Il travaille pour lui (not pour soi). Ils pensent a eux (not 2 soi).

X POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVES AND PRONOUNS

§ 109. The possessive adjectives are:

masculine	feminine	plural
mon	ma	mes
ton	ta	tes
son	sa	ses
notre	notre	nos
votre	votre	VOS
leur	leur	leu rs

§ 110. The possessive pronouns are:

singular		flural [
nasc	.tem	masc.	fem
le mien	la mienne i	les miens	les miennes 1
le tien	la tienne	les tiens	les tiennes
le sien	la sienne	les siens	les siennes
le nôtre	la nôtre .	les nôtres	les nôtres
le vôtre	la vôtre	les vôtres	les vôtres
le leur	la leur	les leurs	les leurs

§ 111. Leur (from Latin illorium) never takes an ϵ in the feminine

Syntax

§ 112. Possessive adjectives and pronouns agree in gender and number with the object possessed, but never (as in English) with the possessor. Examples:

Le docteur Dubois a perdu sa femme. Ma sœur a apporté son violon Elle est sortie avec mon père et le sien.

§ 113. In order to avoid *matus* (clashing of vowels) the masculine forms *mon*, *ton*, *son* are used before a *feminine* noun beginning with a vowel or h mute:

Connaissez-vous mon amie Louise? (not ma_amie)

N.B.—When it is desired to emphasise a possessive adjective, a strong pronoun preceded by \hat{a} is added. Examples:

Sa femme à lui (His wife) Leur maison à eux (Their house).

XI. RELATIVE PRONOUNS

- § 114. The relative pronouns are qui, lequel, and quol.
 - i. Declension of qui:

nom. qui
acc. que (or qui, § 115, ii.)
gen. dont

after a preposition qui

ii. The pronoun lequel:

singular		plural	
masc.	lequei	lesqueis	
fem.	laquelle	lesquelles	

N B.—After the prepositions **de** and **à**, lequel suffers the same contractions as the article le, la, les:

duquel (for de lequel),

desquels, desquelles (for de lesquels, de lesquelles), auquel (for à lequel),

auxquels, auxquelles (for à lesquels, à lesquelles).

iii. Quoi is a neuter pronoun meaning quelle chose. It is indeclinable. (See § 117.)

Syntax

- § 115. Nominative and accusative.
- i. Qui and que may be used for either persons or things. Qui stands as subject to the verb, and que as direct object. Examples:

L'ami qui vient me voir.

Le pommier qui est dans le jardin.

La personne que nous avons rencontrée.

Les livres que vous m'avez apportés.

- ii. Qui is used for the accusative (of persons only, not of things) when there is no antecedent noun:
 - . Amenez qui vous voudrez.

§ 116. Genitiva.

i. Dont is used in reference to persons or things:

Je ne connais pas la personne dont vous parlez.

La maladie dont vous souffrez.

ii. Dont can only be used in reference to a noun in the nominative or accusative:

Notre voisin, dont la fille (nominative) est inalade. Il avait un habit dont les manches (nominative) étaient percées.

Notre voisin, dont vous connaissez la fille (accusative).

iii. But if the noun is in the dative, or preceded by a preposition, dont must NEVER be used.

Thus, one cannot say:

C'est un homme dont je me fie à l'honnêteté Notre voisin, dont vous avez joué avec la fille Le parc, dont nous nous sommes promenés dans les allées.

- We must use: (a) de qui (for persons only);
 - (b) duquel, de laquelle, etc. (for persons or things). Examples:

C'est un homme à l'honnêteté de qui (or duquel) je me fie.

Notre voisin, avec la fille de qui (or duquel) vous avez joué.

Le parc, dans les allées duquel nous nous sommes promenés.

- iv. Note the order of words after dont (the logical order):
- Notre voisin, dont vous connaissez la fille

No other order is permissible. One cannot say:

Notre voisin, dont la fille vous connaissez.

C

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§ 117. After a preposition:

Qui is used for persons only;

Lequel is used for persons or things;

Quoi is used as an independent neuter pronoun (not referring to any noun in the sentence).

Examples:

L'amı en qui j'avais confiance.

La personne avec { qui laquelle } vous étiez.

Le couteau avec lequel je me suis coupé.

L'échelle sur laquelle il est monté.

Nous avons de quoi vivre.

Je ne sais pas à quoi vous pensez (à quelle chose). Voilà donc sur quoi vous comptez! (sur quelle chose).

§ 118. The relative pronoun should always be placed immediately after its antecedent. Failure to observe this rule may result in utter nonsense.

We must say:

Sur la rivière, on voyait un bateau_qui avait des voiles blanches.

Dans le train, en face de nous, il y avait un soldat qui fumait, sa pipe.

We must not say:

On voyait un bateau sur la 'rivière qui avait des voiles blanches.

(Has the river got sails?)

Il y avait un soldat en face de nous dans le train qui fumait sa pipe.

(Does the train smoke a pipe?)

XII. INTERROGATIVE ADJECTIVES AND PRONOUNS

§ 119. The interrogative adjective is :

Examples: Quel jour viendrez-vous? Quel âge a votre sœur? Quelle heure est-il? Avec quelles plumes préférez-vous écrire?

N.B.—Quel is also used in exclamations: Quel bonheur! Quelle belle journée!

§ 120. The interrogative pronouns are:

1. When we mean what person?

after a preposition: qui

ii. When we mean what thing?

iii. When we wish to distinguish between several (persons or things): lequel, laquelle, etc. (cf. § 114, 11)

Examples:

- i. Qui a sonné? Qui est-ce quP a sonné? Qui avez-vous rencontré? Qui est-ce que vous avez rencontré? Pour qui est cette lettre? Chez qui avez-vous dîné hier?
- ii. Qu'est-ce qui vous empêche de partir? Que voulezvous? Qu'est-ce que vous voulez? De quoi vous plaignez-vous? Avec quoi vous êtes-vous fait mal?
- iii. Lequel des deux chemins est le bon? Savez-vous lequel il faut prendre?

XIII. DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES AND PRONOUNS

§ 121. The demonstrative adjective is:

masculine	feminine	plural
ce cet	cette	ces

Ce is used before a consonant or aspirate h: co livre, co héros:

Cet is used before a vowel or mule h: cet enfant, cet homme. (Cf. § 71.)

§ 122. The demonstrative pronouns are:

	singular	plural
masc. fem.	celui celle	ceux celles
-	e neuter pro	1

§ 123. In order to distinguish between two persons or two objects, one may suffix the adverbs ci and la to the pronouns. Examples:

i. cet homme-ci, cette femme-là, ces enfants-là.

ıi.	celui-01 celui-là celle-01 celle-là	ceux-ci ceux-là celles-ci celles-là
iii	ceci	cela 1

¹ Ça in familiar conversation only.

Syntax

§ 124. The pronoun celui (celle, etc.) can never stand alone. It is always followed:

i. By ci or ld:

J'aime mieux celul-cl que celul-là.
Donnez-moi ceux-là, et gardez les autres.

ii. By the preposition de:

Voilà enfin ma bicyclette! Celle de mon frère est arrivée hier soir.

Ce chemin-ci est mauvais. Celul de droite est meilleur.

iii. By the relative pronoun qui (que, dont):

Coux qui ne travailient pas s'ennuient.

Je vous apporte des livres, mais je n'ai pas trouvé

ceux { que vous m'aviez demandés.

dont vous m'aviez parlé.

§ 125. The pronoun ce is often used as antecedent to the relative:

Dites-moi ce qui vous ferait plaisir. Voilà ce que j'ai décidé. Savez-vous ce dont il s'agit? Elle est ravie de ce qu'elle a vu. Je pense à ce que vous m'avez dit.

§ 126. Before a noun or pronoun (cf. § 47, ii.), ce is used as subject of the verb stre, instead of the personal pronoun (il, elle, etc.):

C'est un Anglais. Ce sont des Anglais.
Qui est ce monsieur? C'est mon oncle.
Connaissez-vous Louise? C'est ma cousine.
Donnez-moi ce livre, c'est le mien, c'est celui que j'ai acheté.

- § 127. Ce is also used as subject of $\hat{\mathbf{e}}$ tre when neuter (English il):
 - i. Before a noun or pronoun:

C'est moi qui ai sonné. C'est une honte.

C'est votre père qui l'a dit.

Est-ce vos frères que je vois là-bas? C'est eux (Ce sont eux).1

- ii. Before an adverb or adverbial expression:C'est bien. C'est beaucoup. C'est ici. C'est à gauche.
- § 128. The translation of the English it is before an adjective often proves a stumbling-block, even to advanced students. One should carefully distinguish between the demonstrative use (when it = that), and the impersonal use.
 - i. Demonstrative use—The subject of être must be ce (or cela):
 - (a) before an adjective standing alone:
 C'est vrai, or Cela est vrai.
 C'est (or Cela est) bien ennuyeux.
 C'est (or Cela est) impossible.
 - (b) before an adjective followed by à +infinitive:
 C'est (or Cela est) facile à faire.
 C'est (or Cela est) utile à savoir.

In these expressions, d + infinitive is equivalent to a Latin gerund in -dus, showing that something is to be done.

- ii. Impersonal use—The subject of être must be il:
 - (a) before an adjective (or adjectival expression)
 followed by a noun clause which is the real subject of the verb être:
 - Il est impossible qu'il s'échappe (-qu'il s'échappe est impossible).
 - ·ll est à craindre que nous soyons en retard (=que nous soyons en retard est à craindre).

¹ Ce sont may be used before a plural noun, or before a pronoun in the third person plural, but never before nous or vous.

(b) before an adjective (or adjectival expression) followed by de and an infinitive which is the real subject of the verb être:

Il est utile de savoir deux langues (-savoir deux langues est utile).

Il est dangereux de se pencher au dehors (=se pencher . . . est dangereux).

Il est d'usage de rendre les visites qu'on reçoit (=rendre les visites . . . est d'usage).

But if the English it is stands before a NOUN (whether qualified or not by an adjective, whether followed or not by a clause), it should always be translated by c'est:

C'est une consolation de savoir qu'il n'est que blessé.

C'est un grand avantage de parler deux langues.

N.B.—When the adjective expresses emotion, or when it is desired to give greater force to the expression, one *may* use ce instead of d:

C'est si bon de revoir ses amis!

C'est vrai que la jeunesse passe vite!

But such distinctions are confusing, and dangerous for beginners. In practice, it is always safer to observe one rule only.

The following rule (which sums up all that precedes) is quite simple, easy to remember, and absolutely reliable:

USE c'est IN ALL CASES, except:

- (a) before an ADJECTIVE followed by a CLAUSE (or by de and an infinitive)
- (b) to express the time of day:

Il est quatre heures.

Il sera minuit quand nous arriverons.

§ 129. Ceci (cette chose-ci) is used in opposition to cela (cette chose-là). Examples:

J'aime mieux ceci que cela. Ceci est noir, et cela est blanc. § 130. Cela (or ça in familiar style) is also used:

 i. As subject of 8tre, especially if the verb is preceded by an objective pronoun:

Cela m'est égal. Cela nous est impossible.

ii. As subject of a verb other than être:
 Cela fait beaucoup de mal. Cela devient difficile.
 Cela vaudra mieux.

iii. After a preposition:Je suis venu pour cela.Je ne partirai pas sans cela.

iv. To emphasise the pronoun:

Cela, c'est une bonne idée.

XIV. INDEFINITE ADJECTIVES AND PRONOUNS

§ 181. Indefinite adjectives, with corresponding pronouns:

adjectives	i	pronouns
chaque quelque quelques	{	chacun, chacune quelqu'un, quelqu'une quelques-uns, quelques-unes quelque chose 1
quelconque ;		quiconque
n'importe quel(le) n'importe quel(le)s	{	n'importe qui n'importe quoi

Examples:

Chaque pays a ses coutumes. Chacun pour soi.

Je l'ai vu il y a quelques jours.

Quelqu'un est venu pour vous voir.

Apportez-vous quelque chose de bon? Qui, des perdreaux. J'en ai tué quelques-uns.

Deux points quelconques étant donnés.

Quiconque parlera sera puni.

Je punirai quiconque parlera.

Venez n'importe quel jour. Demandez à n'importe qui. Donnez-moi n'importe quoi.

§ 132. Pronouns:

on (l'on after a word ending in a vowel, e.g., si l'on veut). tout le monde, personne,2 rien.

l'un. l'une: les uns. les unes.

l'un l'autre, l'une l'autre; les uns les autres, les unes les autres; l'un et l'autre, etc.; l'un ou l'autre, etc. : ni l'un ni l'autre, etc.

autrui (invariable).

*c

The noun chose is feminine, but the pronoun quelque chose is masculina.

The noun personne is feminine (e.g., une belle personne), but the pronoun personne is masculine.

Examples:

On dit que le roi est mort.

Tout le monde en parle.

Je n'ai vu personne. Personne n'est venu. Il n'est venu personne.

Il ne m'a rien dit. Rien ne l'arrête.

L'un de mes frères est soldat.

Aidons-nous les uns les autres.

Je n'ai parlé ni à l'une ni à l'autre.

Il ne faut pas convoiter le bien d'autrui.

§ 133. The following words are used sometimes as adjectives, sometimes as pronouns:

certain, certaine; certains, certaines tel, telle; tels, telles. tout, toute; tous, toutes. nul, nulle; nuls, nulles. aucun, aucune; pas un, pas une. autre, autres; même, mêmes. plusieurs (masc. and fem.).

Examples:

Certaines villes sont plus intéressantes que d'autres.

Je n'accepterais pas une telle proposition.

De tels accidents sont rares.

Tout métier est respectable.

Toute la ville fut détruite.

Il vient tous [tu] 1 les matins.

Je les ai tous [tus] 1 apportés.

A l'impossible nul n'est tenu.

Aucun Pas un de vous ne sait sa leçon.

Ils sont tous les mêmes, ils ont les mêmes défauts. Je vous l'ai déjà dit plusieurs fois.

¹ The s is sounded in the pronoun, but never in the adjective.

Syntax

- § 134. The examples quoted in §§ 181-133 illustrate the following points of syntax:
 - i. The pronoun quiconque is always used:
 - either (a) as subject of two verbs, e.g. Quiconque parlera sera puni;
 - or (b) as object of one verb and subject of another, e.g., Je punirai quiconque parlera (I shall punish him/who speaks).
 - ii. When any of these adjectives or prenouns are used in a negative sense, the verb is always preceded by ne. (Cf. §§ 145-148.)
 - iii. The pronouns tout and rien, used objectively, are placed between the auxiliary and the participle, while personne always comes after the participle.
 - iv. The adjective tout always precedes the article: Toute la ville, not La toute ville.

XV. ADVERBS

- § 135. Adverbs are invariable words, which are used to qualify a verb or an adjective, by determining the *circumstances* of an act or state; such circumstances fall under the following heads:
 - i. place: ici, là, où, près, loin, etc.
 - ii. time: aujourd'hui, demain, déjà, souvent, etc.
 - quantity or degree: beaucoup, peu, plus, moins, assez, trop, combien, très, etc.
 - iv. manner: bien, mal, vite, poliment, etc.
 - v. affirmation: oui, si, certainement, etc.
 - vi. negation: non, ne . . . pas, ne . . . plus, ne . . . jamais, etc.
- § 186. Adverbs of manner are formed by adding -ment to the feminine of the adjective.

(Why to the feminine? Because the ending -ment comes from the ablative of the feminine Latin word mens, which meant not only "mind," but "manner." Bonnement 1 = d'une bonne manière.)

Examples:

malheureux, malheureuse, malheureusement; faux, fausse, faussement; nouveau, nouvelle, nouvellement.

¹ Latin bona mente. Cf. the English wise (otherwise, likewise) and the German weise (glücklicherweise).

§ 137. Exceptions:

i. A few adverbs take an acute accent on the feminine e before the suffix:

profondément, obscurément, énormément, etc.

ii. If the masculine form of the adjective ends in a vowel other than e mute, the e of the feminine is dropped before the suffix:

hardi, hardiment, poli, poliment; aisé, aisément; résolu, résolument.

iii. Adjectives ending in -ant, -ent, change these endings into -amment, -emment:

constant, constamment; prudent, prudemment.

N.B.—lent gives, regularly, lentement, présent ,, présentement.

§ 138. The following adverbs should be noted:

adjective	adverb	
bon	• bien	
mauvais	mal	
gentil	gentiment	
bref	bri è vem e nt	
impuni	impun é ment	
trastre	traî freuse ment	
gai	gaiement or galment	

§ 139. Certain adjectives may be used adverbially:

courir vite chanter faux •
parler haut ,, juste
sentir bon
,, mauvais

Syntax

§ 140. If the verb is in a simple tense, the adverb follows the verb:

Il sait blen l'anglais.

Elle parle souvent de vous.

If the verb is in a compound tense, the adverb is generally placed between the auxiliary and the participle:

Elle à très bien chanté.

Nous avons trop marché, je suis fatigué.

Exceptions: Adverbs of *time* and *place* (and certain adverbs of *manner*) are placed after the participle:

Elle est arrivée avant-hier.
Je l'ai connu autrefois.
Ils sont restés derrière.
Je ne l'ai rencontré nulle part.
Nous avons marché lentement.
Ils sont partis ensemble.

- § 141. The following points deserve notice:
- i. The adverb tout (-tout à fait) is variable before a feminine adjective beginning with a consonant or aspirate h:

Une pièce toute neuve. Des fleurs toutes blanches.

But it remains invariable before a vowel or mute h: Elle fut tout étonnée, tout heureuse.

- ii. Adverbs of degree may be:
 - (a) Exclamatory:

Comme il est riche! (or qu'il est riche!).

Comme c'est loin! (or que c'est loin!).

Combien sont heureux les peuples qui n'ont pas d'histoire!

(b) Interrogative: combien d'argent, combien de fois, etc. . . . Comblen, when interrogative, is only used before a noun, never immediately before an adjective or adverb. One may not say:

Combien vieux est-il? (how old). Combien grand est-il? (how tall). Combien loin est-ce? (how far).

One must use a noun preceded by quel:

Quel âge a-t-il? Quelle taille a-t-il?

Quelle distance y a-t-il?

Comparison of Agverbs

§ 142. Adverbs form their comparative and superlative in the same way as adjectives (§§ 81-85).

Examples: Il court plus vite que moi.

C'est lui qui court le plus vite.

Il ne chante pas si bien que vous.

§ 143. The following adverbs have special forms derived from Latin (cf. § 84):

bien	mieux	le mieux
mal	pis	le pis
beaucoup	plus	le plus
Dell	moins	le moins

N.B.—Mal also has a regular comparative, plus mal.

§ 144. Affirmation.

- i. The adverb oui is used in answer to a positive question:

 Avez-yous fini?—Oul, monsieur.
- ii. The adverb si is used in answer to a negative question, or in contradicting a negative statement:

Est-ce que vous n'avez pas fini?—Si, monsieur.

Je suis sûr que vous n'avez pas fini!—Si, monsieur.

N.B.—Oui, si (and non) may stand for a dependent clause:

Viendra-t-il?--Je crois que oui (= Je crois qu'il viendra). Similarly: Je crois que si, je crois que non, il m'a dit que oui, etc. . . .

- § 145. Negation. A negative expression consists of two parts: 1 the adverb no, and a complement. This complement is:
 - i. Sometimes an adverb—pas, point, plus, guère, jamais.
 - ii. Sometimes the conjunction que.
 - iii. Sometimes an indefinite adjective or pronoun: aucun, nul, personne, rien, etc. . . .
 - 1 It is exactly the same in English, where:

not (contraction of nought) stands for Old English no+wiht, nothing stands for no+thing,

never ,, ne (=not)+ever, etc . . .

And it was exactly the same in Latin, where:

nihil stood for ne+hilum, nemo ,, ne+homo, etc. . . .

The French complementary negatives are all derived from positive Latin nouns (hence the absolute necessity of adding ne to give them a negative meaning). Examples:

non ambulavi passum, Je n'ai pas marché (not a step).

non vidi punctum, Joen'ai point vu (not a speck).

non feci rem, Je n'ai rien fait (not a thing).

non comedi micam, Je n'ai mangé mie (not a crumb).
non bibi guttam, Je n'ai bu goutte (not a drop).

It will be noticed that in popular Latin these complementary nouns were only used with certain verbs, according to the sense. In the course of time, however, the particular meaning of each word came to be forgotten, and they were used indiscriminately as general negatives. Curiously, goutte has only survived in one expression (in which it is connected with the notion of sight!!): Je n'y vois goutte (It is pitch dark).

Syntax of the Negative

§ 146. If the verb is in a simple tense, no is placed before it, and the complement after:

Je no sais pas où il est. Je no veux plus le voir. Il no travaille jamais. Elle n'a que douze ans. Je no dis ni oui ni non. No parlez à personne.

- § 147. The following points should be noted:
 - i. If the object of the verb is a personal pronoun, ne comes before the pronoun:

Il ne me voit pas.
Je ne les connais pas.
Nous n'en avons jamais.
Je ne me le rappelle plus.
Je ne l'ai pas vu du tout.
Ne l'avez-vous pas vu non plus?

- ii. An indefinite pronoun (rien, personne, etc.), used as subject, comes before the verb, and before no. Compare:
 Je ne vois rien. Rien ne m'arrêtera.
 Je ne connais personne. Personne ne me connaît.
- iii. In compound tenses, the complement is placed between the auxiliary and the participle:

Il ne m'a pas vu. Je ne lui ai jamais parlé. Nous n'avons rien dit.

N.B.—Except personne and aucun, which follow the participle:

Je n'ai rencontré personne. Je n'en ai vu aucun.

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If the verb is in the infinitive, both the adverb ne and the complement come before it:

Dites-lui de ne pas partir. Il m'a demandé de ne plus le faire. J'ai promis de ne rien dire.

But, N B.—Je préfère ne voir personne.

§ 148. The adverb ne is left out:

i When the verb is left out:
Étes-vous prêt?—Pas encore.
Qui avez-vous rencontré?—Personne.

ii. After the preposition sans or the conjunction sans que:
Il a écouté sans rien dire.
Il souffre sans jamais se plaindre.
Nous entrerons sans que personne nous voie.

Pas may be omitted after pouvoir, savoir, oser:

Je ne puis, je ne sais, je n'ose.

XVI. PREPOSITIONS AND CONJUNCTIONS

§ 149. Propositions are invariable words, which are used before 1 a noun, pronoun or verb, in order to express certain relations, such as:

place: à, de, vers, dans, devant, derrière.

time: avant, après, pendant, depuis.

cause: par, à cause de. purpose: pour, afin de. manner: en, etc.

§ 150. All prepositions, except en, govern the infinitive. en governs the gerund (cf § 246).

§ 151. The prepositions most frequently used are d and de. They are found in almost every French sentence.

Their chief use is to mark certain cases of the noun or pronoun.

In synthetic languages, such as Latin, the different cases are marked by different inflexions (rosa, rosam, rosam).

In analytic languages, such as English and French:

- (a) direct case relations (nominative and accusative) are indicated by the position of the word in the sentence (cf. § 285).
- (b) indirect (or oblique) case relations (genitive and dative) are indicated by prepositions.
- N.B.—There are still a few traces of inflexion left in French—eg:

nom. il ils qui acc. le les que dat lui leur

¹ pré-position = position before

Uses of à

- § 152. The principal functions of the preposition \hat{a} (from Lat. ad) are:
 - (a) that of the Latin dative (showing the person to whom a thing is given, or in whose interest it is done):

 I'ai donné deux sous à un pauvre.
 - (b) that of the Latin ad +accusative, showing direction, inclination, movement, etc.

Laissez venir à moi les petits enfants (Lat. venire ad me).

One should distinguish carefully between the true dative and the other prepositional uses of d

§ 153. The dative is used:

- after many transitive verbs, governing an "accusative of the thing," such as:
- (a) donner, porter, offrir, proposer, promettre, montrer, enseigner, prêter, vendre, etc.
- (b) demander, ôter, enlever, arracher, prendre, cacher, emprunter, acheter, etc.
- (c) dire, conseiller, persuader, permettre, commander, ordonner, etc.
- (d) refuser, défendre, pardonner, reprocher.

Je lui ai promis une récompense.

On lui a pris son couteau.

J'ai demandé la permission \hat{a} mes parents.

J'enseigne la grammaire aux enfants.

N.B.—The French construction is entirely different from the English.

The English construction is perfectly logical:

"To give to," but "to take from."

"To lend to," but "to borrow from "

"To sell to," but "to buy from "

In French, one must remember to use.

The accusative for the THING, The dative for the PERSON

This cannot result in confusion. For instance, Je lin at prission livre could not possibly mean, "I took his book to him." We should have to use another verb and say: Je lin at porteson livre. Prendre cannot mean anything but "to take from."

Should the accusative be an infinitive instead of a noun, that infinitive must be preceded by de:

Je *lui* ai offert *de* le récompenser Je *lui* ai permis *de* sortir. (Cf § 244.)

N.B.—Exceptionally, a few verbs take an accusative of the person, before an infinitive

Priez-le de vemr Empêchez-les de sortir

ii. after certain intransitive verbs, such as: pailer, convenir, importer, plaire, obéir, résister, nuire, ressembler, succéder, survivre, etc.

Il ressemble à son frère Cela ne *lui* conviendra pas

iii. after certain adjectives, such as: utile, nécessaire, favorable, agréable, cher, opposé, contraire, nuisible, fatal, indifférent, etc.;

Le pain est nécessaire à l'homme

iv. in certain expressions in which the direct object is a part of the body:

On lui a coupé la tête.

Je serrai la main a ce brave homme

v. in such expressions as:

Nettoyez-moi cela

Fermez-mos cette porte (cf. Shake-peare, Taming of the Shrew: "Knock me at this gate", and the Latin "Quid mshi Celsus agit?").

vi. with faire, laisser, etc., followed by a transitive infinitive. (Cf. § 240.)

N.B.—A dative can never become the nominative of a passive verb.

One can never say: Il a été offert de l'argent ("He was offered some money"). One must say: On lui a offert de l'argent.

- § 154. The preposition d (as distinct from the *dative*) is used:
 - i. after certain verbs implying tendency:
 - (a) transitive (governing the accusative of the *person*), such as: aider, exciter, exhorter, encourager, forcer, obliger, condamner, etc.
 - (b) Intransitive, such as: consentir, aspirer, penser, songer, tendre, tenir, travailler, arriver, réussir, parvenir, aboutir, contribuer, renoncer, compatir, assister, etc.
 - (c) reflexive, such as: s'attendre, s'apprêter, se préparer, se destiner, se décider, se résoudre, s'accoutumer, s'occuper, s'amuser, s'acharner, s'opposer, etc.

Encouragez-le au travail.

Il ne réussit à rien.

Je me prépare à partir.

ii after certain adjectives, also implying tendency, such as: prêt, prompt, enclin, apte, propre, etc.:

Il est enclin \hat{a} la paresse.

N.B.—If the object of the verb is a clause, à ce que must be used before the verb. (Cf. § 242.)

Je ne tiens pas à ce que vous le fassiez. Je ne m'attendais pas à ce qu'il fût là.

§ 155. The preposition \hat{a} is used, further, to express:

i. time:

Il se-lève à six heures. Elle est morte à vingt ans.

ii place where

Nous demeurons à Paris. Il était assis à ma droite.

iii. place whither or direction:

Venez à moi. Courez vite à la gare. Ne pensez plus à lui.

iv. purpose (à = pour):

Un couteau à poisson (pour le poisson). La boîte aux lettres (pour les lettres).

v. attribute (à -avec) :

Un homme \hat{a} cheveux blancs (avec des cheveux blancs). Des bottines \hat{a} boutons (avec des boutons). Une tarte \hat{a} la crème (avec de la crème). Une table \hat{a} tiroirs (avec des tiroirs).

vi. possession:

Ce livre est à moi.
Il a une maison à lui (of his own).

vii. manner:

Le café se vend d la livre.

Il est habillé d l'anglaise (à la mode anglaise).

Une machine d vapeur.

Nous sommes venus d cheval.

Uses of de

- § 156. The preposition de marks the genitive. The genitive may express:
 - i. possession : Le livre de Pierre. La maison de mon père.
 - ii. origin: Il vient de Paris. Il est né de parents pauvres. Les malheurs de la guerre (qui viennent de la guerre).
- N.B.—By an extension of the notion of origin, de is often used instead of par:

Il est estimé de ses amis.

Il est hal de tout le monde.

(Cf. English: Ye shall be hated of all men.)

FRENCH GRAMMAR

iii A part of a whole (partitive genitive, cf. §§ 45, 48, iii.).

N.B.—The partitive genitive is used, not only after expressions of quantity, but also between an indefinite, relative or interrogative pronoun and an adjective or participle:

Rien de nouveau. Personne de blessé.

- Cf. Latin Quid novi? Nihil boni, etc. Voilà ce que j'ai de meilleur.
- Cf. "And deck me... in all I have of rich" (Tennyson, Elame).

§ 157. The preposition de is used:

- i. after certain verbs:
- (a) transitive (governing the accusative of the person), such as: accuser, blâmer, louer, féliciter, excuser, plaindre, charger, presser, dispenser, dissuader, décourager, préserver, priver, menacer, consoler, prévenir, etc.
- (b) intransitive, such as: douter, jour, profiter, changer, abuser, etc.
- (c) reflexive, such as: s'étonner, se contenter, s'apercevoir, s'affliger, se réjour, se plaindre, s'abstenir, se mêler, se lasser, se servir, se souvenir, etc.

On l'accuse de vol. Je doute de son honnêteté. Je ne m'étais pas aperçu de sa présence.

ii. after certain adjectives, generally expressing a feeling or state of mind, such as: avide, capable, coupable, innocent, digne, jaloux, heureux, inquiet, fâché, triste, sûr, certain, etc.

Il est capable de tout.

Ellen'est pas digne de confiance.

¹ Se rappeler governs the accusative. Compare: Je me le rappelle and Je m'en souviens, and cf. § 106.

§ 158. The preposition de is used, further, to indicate:

i. distance (great or small):

Nous approchons de la ville.

Il demeure près d'ici (loin d'ici).

ii. material (de =en) :

Une montre d'or (en or).

Une plume d'acier (en acier).

iii. manner or means:

Il court de toutes ses forces.

Il renversa son adversaire d'un coup de poing.

Je le ferai de bon cœur.

Il fut emmené de force.

iv. cause:

J'ai regret de sa mort (à cause de sa mort).

Il a honte de sa faute (à cause de sa faute).

v. apposition:

Le mois de janvier. Le jeu de billard

N.B.—Un coquin de valet. Un amour d'enfant.

Cf. a rogue of a boy.

vi. measure:

Un bâton long de trois pieds.

Ce mur a trente pieds de long

Une jeune fille de vingt ans ((f § 97.)

vii. quality (de + noun = adjective):

Un conseil d'ami (amical). Un dîner de roi (royal). Similarly, une maison de campagne, un bonnet

de nuit. (Cf. § 47, 1.)

§ 159. The French language lacks the precious faculty, possessed by English and German, of making compound words. It is reduced to the expedient of binding words together by prepositions, generally d or de:

Du papier à lettres à initiales de couleur.

Un bateau à vapeur à hélice.

Un service à dessert en porcelaine de Sèvres.

Un couteau à poisson à manche de nacre.

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§ 160. Note the difference between:

- i. A and de:
 - (a) Une tasse à thé (pour le thé). Une tasse de thé (pleine de thé).
 - (b) convenir:L'air de la mer convient aux malades.Nous sommes convenus du prix.
 - (c) échapper:
 Il a échappé à la mort.
 Il s'est échappé de prison.
 - (d) jouer : jouer la comédie, jouer aux cartes, jouer du piano.
 - (e) manquer:
 Vous avez manqué à vos devoirs.
 Nous manquons de pain.
 - (f) penser:
 Pensez-vous encore à lui? Que pensez-vous de lui?
 - (g) servir:
 A quoi cela sert-il?—A rien.
 J'ai servi de guide d vos amis.
 Je me sers d'une plume pour écrire.
 - (h) tenir:
 Je tiens à cette montre (elle m'est précieuse).
 Il tient de son père (il lui ressemble).
- ii. and en:

à Paris, à Londres, à Berlin (towns).
 en France, en Angleterre, en Allemagne (countries). (Cf. § 46, iv.)

iii. en and dans:

en ville, but dans la ville.1

Nous partirons pour New York dans huit jours (au bout de huit jours).

Nous irons à New York en huit jours (Il faudra huit jours pour y aller).

¹ En is hardly ever used before a definite article, though there are a few exceptions, e.g., en l'air, en l'honneur.

iv. devant and avant:

Il se tenait devant moi (place).

Il est arrivé avant moi (time)

v. vers and envers :

Il se dirigeait vers nous (movement).

Il faut être charitable envers tout le monde (pour tout le monde).

§ 161. When speaking of things, it is not possible to use a preposition and a pronoun as in English (on it, under it, in it, etc.). In French an adverb (dessus, dessous, dedans, dehors, etc.) without any pronoun is used. Thus:

When speaking of a table, we say: Mes livres sont dessus (instead of sur elle).

When speaking of a drawer, we say: Mon linge est dedans (instead of dans lui).

Similarly: Les uns sont entrés dans la maison, les autres sont restés dehors (instead of hors d'elle).

§ 162. Finally, the various uses of the preposition par should be noted. It may express:

i. cause or manner:

Le chêne a été renversé par l'orage.

César fut tué par Brutus.

Il a agi par intérêt.

ii. direction:

Par où a-t-il passé? Par ici ou par là?

Il a sauté par la fenêtre.

Il est tombé par terre.

iii. the weather:

Il sort par tous les temps, par la pluie, par le vent, par la neige.

Par une belle matinée de juin.

Conjunctions

§ 163. Conjunctions are invariable words, whose function is to join or link together two or more clauses.

There are two kinds of conjunctions:

- i. Co-ordinative conjunctions, which join two independent phrases, such as: et, ou, ni, mais, car.
- ii. Subordinative conjunctions, which join the principal clause to the subordinate (or dependent) clause. (Cf. §§ 262-267.)
- § 164. Conjunctions like prepositions also express certain relations, such as:

time: avant que, après que, pendant que, jusqu'à ce que, depuis que, etc.

cause: parce que, puisque, etc.

purpose or consequence: pour que, afin que, etc.

condition: si, à moins que, sans que, pourvu que, pour peu que, etc.

concession: quoique, bien que, soit que, etc.

XVII. THE VERB

§ 165. There are four kinds of verbs:

i. Transitive, which have a direct object:

Le paysan cultive la terre.

ii. Intransitive, which have an indirect object, or no object at all.

L'enfant marche.

L'oiseau vole.

Pierre parle à sa mère (indirect object).

iii. Reflexive, whose object is the same person (or thing) as the subject:

Charles se baigne.

Le soleil se couche.

N.B.—The reflexive form is often used to indicate reciprocal action:

Nous nous reverrons dimanche.

Les deux hommes se regardèrent

Ils s'aident l'un l'autre.

iv. Impersonal—conjugated in the third person singular only:

Il pleut. Il neige. Il y a.

§ 166. There are two voices:

i. The active voice, when the action expressed by the verb is done by the subject (from Lat. agere, actum, to do):

Le paysan cultive.

ii. The passive voice, when the action expressed by the verb is suffered by the subject (from Lat. pati, passus sum, to suffer):

La terre est cultivée.

\$ 167-172

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§ 167. Instead of the passive voice, the French very frequently use:

i. The active voice

instead of:

Ils ont été vus.

On les a vus.

Il a été mordu par le chien.

Le chien l'a mordu.

ii. The reflexive form

Instead of:

I.e café est vendu au poids.

La fenêtre fut ouverte.

one can say:

Le café se vend au poids.

La fenêtre s'ouvrit.

§ 168. There are three moods:
Indicative, subjunctive, imperative.

§ 169. Besides the three moods, there are:

- i. Two verbal nouns, the *infinitive* and the *gerund*. They are called verbal nouns because they fulfil at once the functions of a verb and of a noun:
- (a) of a verb, because they express action,
- (b) of a noun, because they are used either as subject or as object of another verb, or after a preposition:

Mentir est honteux (=le mensonge est honteux). Il sait lire. Je travaille pour vivre.

Il me regardait en riant.

- ii. Two verbal adjectives, the present participle and the past participle. They are called verbal adjectives because they fulfil at once the functions of a verb and of an adjective:
- (a) of a verb, because they express action,
- (b) of an adjective, because they may be used to qualify a noun:

Une femme charmante. Une langue morte.

- § 170. There are two kinds of tenses:
- i. Simple tenses, consisting of a stem, to which endings are added:

stem endings
chant finiss ant
recev als
rompr al

ii. Compound tenses, consisting of an auxiliary verb and a past participle.

The auxiliary verbs are avoir and être:

J'ai marché. Je suis tombé

- § 171. In the active voice:
- i. Transitive verbs form their compound tenses with avoir:

J'ai vu votre frère.

Nous avons trouvé un porte-monnaie.

- ii. Intransitive verbs form their compound tenses:
- (a) sometimes with avoir:

J'ai parlé, j'ai rı, j'ai dormı.

(b) sometimes with etre (verbs of motion especially):

Je suis allé, je suis parti, je suis venu, je suis arrivé, je suis entré, elle est tombée, etc.

N.B.—Je suis resté, je suis devenu, il est né, elle est morte.

- iii. All reflexive verbs are conjugated with être:
 - Il s'est repenti, nous nous sommes enfuis, ils se sont cachés.
- § 172. In the passive voice, the auxiliary is always être:

 Je suis blessé, nous serons pris, j'ai été puni.

FRENCH GRAMMAR

§ 173. Verbs are distinguished by the ending of their infinitive. There are four such endings:

-er,	-ir,	-oir,	-re.
parler	finir	recevoir	vendre
marcher	sortir	vouloir	vivre
etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.

§ 174. Verbs in -er and those verbs in -Ir which have an enlarged present stem (like *finir*) constitute what are called the living conjugations. They are called thus because they are still capable of receiving fresh additions; whenever new verbs are formed, they belong to one of these two conjugations. Nouns generally give verbs in -er, and adjectives verbs in -Ir:

Verbs in -ir with unenlarged stems (partir, dormir, etc.) and verbs in -oir and -re constitute the dead conjugations, so called because they are never used for the creation of new verbs.

N.B.—The living conjugations comprise about 4000 verbs, the dead conjugations only 95.1

FORMATION OF TENSES

§ 175. Tenses are formed by adding the endings to the stem. (See the Table of Endings, § 178.)

§ 176. The tenses fall into three groups:

i. Present group

present indicative
present subjunctive
imperfect indicative
imperative

the stem is that of the
present participle

^{1 28} verbs in -ir, 17 in -oir, and 50 in -re.

See Introductory Remarks, p. 150, lines 6-21.

VERBS **66** 173-177

Examples:

bresent participle present stem present participle present stem

chant-ant chantromp-ant rompfiniss-ant finiss-1 Connaiss-ant connaissrecev-ant recevplaign-ant plaign-

N.B.—The present stem is often contracted in certain persons. Cf. § 40.

11. Past group

past historic indicative) the stem is that of the imperfect subjunctive | past historic indicative.

Examples:

D

past hist. indic. past stem past hist indic past stem chant-ai chantconnfin-15 flnnagu-is naqu-

111 Future group

future

the stem is the infinitive. future in the past (or conditional)

Verbs ending in -re drop the final e mute, consequently the future stem invariably ends in -r.

infinitive future stem infinitive Luture stem parler parlerccrir(e) écrirfinir finirnaîtr(e) naitr-

N.B.—In certain verbs, the future stem is weakened, through the stressed syllable being dropped, or becoming unstressed. For instance:

> recevoir = recev(oi)r. stem : recevimourir = mour(1)r, stem: mourrfaire stem : fer-

§ 177. It is now apparent that, if we know the present

1 The syllable iss, which enlarges the present stem, 4s of Latin origin, and is found also in Italian and in English Compare the following forms:

Latin flor-esc-entem French fleur-135-ant English flour-ish ing Italian fior-use-ente 80

participle, past indicative, and infinitive of a verb, we can form all the simple tenses of that verb.

§ 178. Table of endings.

	Pres	ent group	
Present i	ndicative	Present subjunctive	Imperfect indicative
Verbs in -er.	Other verbs.	,	
е	5	e	ais
es	5	es	ais
•	t	e	ait
- ,	\sim		
01	ns	ions	ions
ez		iez	iez
ent		ent	aient

Past group

Past histor	ric indic	ative	Imperfect	subjunct	ive
Verbs in -er.	Other	verbs.	Verbs in -er.	Other	verbs.
ai	is	us	asse	isse	usse
85	is	us	asses	isses	usses
а	it	ut	åt	ît	ût
â mes	imes	ûmes	assions	issions	ussions
â tes	ites	ûtes	assiez	issiez	ussiez
èrent	irent	urent	assent	issent	ussent

Future group

Future	(or Conditional)
ai ·	ais
as	ais
8.	ait
ons	ions
ez	iez

aient

Infinitive: er, ir, oir, re

ont

Present participle: ant Past participle: é, i, u (s, t) VERBS §§ 177-179

§ 179. Remarks on verbal endings.

Present group.

Present indicative.—In the third person singular, t is dropped if the stem ends in -d (cf. § 216).

In the plural, the endings are the same in all verbs (except: nous sommes, vous êtes, vous dites, vous faites, ils ont, ils font, ils sont, ils vont).

Present subjunctive.—The endings are the same in all verbs (except avoir and être).

Imperfect indicative.—The endings are the same in all verbs, without exception.

The *imperative* has no endings of its own. The third person is taken from the present subjunctive, the other persons from the present indicative (see \S 187, N.B.).

Past group. -In all verbs, the stressed vowel takes a circumflex accent:

- (a) in the first and second persons plural of the past historic indicative:
 nous parlames, nous finance, nous fames, vous parlates, vous finance, vous fates.
- (b) in the third person singular of the imperfect subjunctive:

il parlat, il finit, il fat.

Future group.—The endings of the future are the same in all verbs without exception. They are those of the present of avoir.—-ai, -as, -a, etc.

Je chanter-ai = j'ai à chanter. (Cantare habeo.)

The endings of the future in the past are the same in all verbs without exception. They are those of the imperfect of avoir.—-ais, -ais, -ait, etc.

Je chanter-ais = j'(av)ais à chanter. (Cantare habebam.)

AUXILIARY VERBS

§ 180. Avoir. SIMPLE TENSES.

Indicative:		Subjunctive:	
Present Future		Present	
j'ai	j'aurai	j'aie	
tu as	tu auras	tu aies	
il (elle) a	il (elle) aura	il (elle) ait	
nous avons	nous aurons	nous ayons	
vous avez	vous aurez	vous ayez	
ils (elles) ont	ils (elles) auront	ils (elles) aient	
Impersect	Future in the Past (or Conditional)	Imperfect	
j'avais	j'aurais	j'eusse [ys]	
tu avais	tu aurais	tu eusses	
il (elle) avait	il (elle) aurait	il (elle) eût	
nous avions	nous aurions	nous eussions	
vous aviez	vous auriez	vous eussiez	
ils (elles) avaient	ıls (elles) auraient	ıls (elles) eussent	
Past Historic	Imperative:	Infinitive:	
j'eus [y]		avoir	
tu eus	aie	<u> </u>	
il (elle) eut	qu'il (elle) ait	PARTICIPLES:	
nous eûmes vous eûtes	ayons	Present: ayant	
ils (elles) eurent	qu'ils (elles) aient	Past: eu [y]	

§ 181. Avoir. Compound Tenses.

Indicative:		Subjunctive:	
Persect	Future Perfect	Perfect	
j'ai eu [y]	j'aurai eu	j'aie eu	
tu as eu	tu auras eu	tu aies eu	
ıl (elle) a eu	il (elle) aura e u	ıl (elle) ait eu	
nous avons eu	nous aurons eu	nous ayons en	
vous avez eu	vous aurez eu	vous ayez eu	
ils (elles) ont eu	ils (elles) auront eu	ıls (elles) aient cu	
Pluperfect	Fut. Perfect in the Past (or Condit. Perfect)	Pluperfect	
j'avais eu	j'aurais eu	j'eusse cu	
tu avais eu	tu aurais eu	tu eusses eu	
il (elle) avait eu	il (elle) aurait eu	il (elle) cût eu	
nous avions eu	nous aurions eu	nous cussions eu	
vous aviez eu	vous auriez eu	vous eussicz eu	
ils (elles) avaient eu	ils (elles) auraient eu	ils (elles) eussent et	
2nd Pluperfect	Perfect I	NFINITIVE:	
j'eus eu tu eus eu	avoir eu Perfect Participle:		
il (elle) eut eu nous eûmes eu			
vous estes eu ils (elles) eurent eu	ayant eu		

§ 182. Être. SIMPLE TENSES.

Indicative:		Subjunctive:
Present	Future	Present
ie suis	je serai	je sois
tu es	tu seras	tu sois
il (elle) est	il (elle) sera	il (elle) soit
nous sommes	nous serons	nous soyons
vous êtes	vous serez	vous soyez
ils (elles) sont	ils (elles) seront	ils (elles) soient
Imperfect	Future in the Past (or Conditional)	Imperfect
j' étais	je serais	je fusse
tu étais	tu serais	tu fusses
il (elle) était	il (elle) serait	il (elle) fût
nous étions	nous serions	nous fussions
vous étiez	vous seriez	vous fussiez
ils (elles) étaient	ils (elles) seraient	ils (elles) fussent
Past Historic	Imperative:	Infinitive:
je fus		être
tu fus	sois	
il (elle) fut	qu'il (elle) soit	PARTICIPLES:
nous fûmes vous fûtes	soyons soyez	Present : étant
ils (elles) furent	qu'ils (elles) soient	Past: été

§ 183. Être. Compound Tenses.

INDICATIVE:		Subjunctive:
Perfect j'ai été tu as été il (elle) a été nous avons été vous avez été	Future Perfect j'aurai été tu auras été il (elle) aura été nous aurons été vous aurez été	Perfect y'aie été tu aies été il (elle) ait été nous ayons été vous ayez été
ils (elles) ont été Pluperfect	ils (elles) auront été Fut. Perfect in the Past (or	ıls (elles) aient été Pluperfect
j'avais été tu avais été il (elle) avait été nous avions été vous aviez été ils (elles) avaient été	Condit. Perfect) j'aurais été tu aurais été il (elle) aurait été nous aurions été vous auriez été ils (elles) auraient été	j'eusse été tu eusses été il (elle) eût été nous eussions été vous eussiez été ils (elles) eussent été
2nd Pluperfect	Perfect Infinitive	
j'eus été tu eus été il (elle) eut été nous eûmes été	avoir été	
	Përfect Participle:	
vous eûtes été ils (elles) eurent été	ayant été	

§ 184. Impersonal Verb II y a. SIMPLE TENSES.

Indic	CATIVE:	Subjunctive:	
Present	Future	Present	
il y a	il y aura	il y ait	
Imperfect	Fut. in the Past (or Conditional)	Imperfect	
il y avait	il y aurait	il y eût	
	IMPERATIVE:	Infinitive:	
Past Historic		y avoir	
il y eut	qu'il y ait	PARTICIPLE:	
		Present: y ayan	
§ 185. Compouni	TENSES.		
Ind	ICATIVE:	Subjunctive:	
Perfect	Fut. Perfect	Perfect	
il y a eu	il y aura eu	il y ait eu	
Pluperfect	Fut. Perfect in the Past (or Condit. Perfect)	Pluperfect	
il y avait eu	il y aurait eu	il y eût eu	
	PERFECT 1	NFINITIVE:	
2nd Pluperfect	y avoir eu		
il y eu t eu	PERFECT PARTICIPLE:		
	y ayant eu		

LIVING CONJUGATIONS (cf. § 174)

§ 186. First Conjugation. Model: Chanter. SIMPLE TENSES.

Indica	Subjunctive:		
Present Future		Present	
je chant-e	je chanter-ai	je chant-e	
tu chant-es	tu chanter-as	tu chant-es	
il chant-e	il chanter-a	il chant-e	
nous chant-ons	nous chanter-ons	nous chant-ions	
vous chant-ez	vous chanter-ez	vous chant-iez	
ils chant-ent	ils chanter-ont	ils chant-ent	
Imperfect	Fut. in the Past (or Conditional)	Imperfect	
je chant-ais	je chanter-ais	je chant-asse	
tu chant-ais	tu chanter-ais	tu chant-asses	
il chant-ait	il chanter-ait	ıl chant- ât	
nous chant-ions	nous chanter-ions	nous chant-assions	
vous chant-iez	vous chanter-iez	vous chant-assiez	
ils chant-aient	ils chanter-aient	ils chant-assent	
Past Historic	Imperative:	Infinitive.	
je chant-ai		chant-er	
tu chant-as il chant-a	chant-e qu'il chant-e	Participles:	
nous chant-âmes vous chant-âtes ils chant-èrent	chant-ons chant-ez qu'ils chant-ent	Present: chant-aut Past: chant-6	

§ 187. Formation of Tenses.

Present group. Present Participle: chant-ant Stem: chant-

Pres. indic. | Imperf. | Pres. subj. | Imperative je chant-e | je chant-ais | je chant-e | chant-e N.B.—The imperative ends in e instead of es in the second pers. sing.

(But s remains before en and y: donnes-en, portes-y.)

Past group. Past Historic: chant-ai

Stem: chant-

Past Historic Imperf. subj. je chant-asse

Future group. Infinitive: chanter

Stem: chanter-

Future je chanter-ai

Future in the Past je chanter-ais

§ 188. COMPOUND TENSES.

Ini	Subjunctive:		
Perfect j'ai chanté tu as chanté, etc.	Future Perfect j'aurai chanté tu auras chanté, etc.	Perfect j'aie chanté tu aies chanté,	
Pluperfect	Fut. Perfect in the Past (or Condit. Perfect)	etc. <i>Pluperfect</i> j'eusse chanté	
j'avais chanté tu avais chanté, etc.	j'aurais chanté tu aurais chanté, etc.	tu eusses chante etc.	
	Perfect Ini	INITIVE:	
2nd Pluperfect	avoir chanté		
j'eus chanté tu eus chanté, etc.	PERFECT PARTICIPLE:		
	ayant chanté		

§ 189. Second Conjugation. Model: Finir. SIMPLE TENSES.

Indic	Subjunctive:		
Present	Present Future		
je finis	je finir-ai	je finiss-e	
tu finis	tu finir-as	tu finiss-es	
il finit	il finir-a	ıl finiss-e	
nous finiss-ons	nous finir-ons	nous finiss-ions	
vous finiss-ez	vous finir-ez	vous finiss-iez	
ils finiss-ent	ils finir-ont	ıls finiss-ent	
Imperfect	Fut. in the Past (or Conditional)	Imperfect	
je finiss-ais	je finir-ais	je fin-isse	
tu finiss-ais	tu finīr-ais	tu fin-isses	
il finiss-ait	ıl finir-ait	il fin-ît	
nous finiss-ions	nous finir-ions	nous fin-issions	
vous finiss-iez	vous finir-iez	vous fin-issiez	
ils finiss-aient	ils finir-aient	ils fin-issent	
Past Historic	Imperative:	Infinitive:	
je fin-is		fin-ir	
tu fin-is	finis		
il fin-it	qu'il finiss-e .	PARTICIPLES:	
nous fin-îmes	finiss-ons		
vous fin-îtes	finiss-ez	Present: finiss-an	
ils fin-irent	qu'ils finiss-ent	Past: fin-i	

§ 190. Formation of Tenses.

Present group. Present Participle: finiss-ant

Present indicative

Stem : finise-

je finis 1 tu finis 1 il finit 1

nous finiss-ons vous finiss-ez ils finiss-ent

Imperfect ie finiss-ais Pres. sub1. ie finiss-e

Imperative finis, finiss-ons

Past group. Past Historic: fin-is

Stem: fin-

Past Historic ie fin-is

Imperf. subj. ie fin-isse

Future group. Infinitive: finir

Future je finir-aı Fut. in the Past ie finir-ais

Stem: finir-

§ 191. COMPOUND TENSES.

Indicative:		Subjunctive:
Perfect	Future Perfect	Perfect
j'ai fini tu as fini, etc.	j'aurai fini tu auras fini, etc.	j'aie fini tu aies fini, etc.
Pluperfect	Fut. Perfect in the Past (or Condit. Perfect)	Pluperfect
j'avais fini tu avais fini, etc.	j'aurais fini tu aurais fini, etc.	j'eusse fini tu eusses fini, etc.
2nd Pluperfect	Perfect Infinitive: avoir fini	
tu eus fini, etc.	PERFECT PARTICIPLE: ayant fini	

¹ In the singular, the ss of the stem is reduced to s: finiss-becomes finis-; and as this stem already ends in s, it is unnecessary to add another s for the ending. In the third person, finit is a contraction of finis-t (cf. § 40).

N.B.—The following forms should be carefully noted:

créer-past partic. créé, feminine créée.

oublier, prier, and all verbs ending in ier:—in the imperfect indicative and present subjunctive (1st and 2nd pers. plur.) the stem ends with 1 and the ending begins with 1:

oubl*i-i*ons

pri-ions

oubli-iez

pri-iez, etc. . . .

Interrogative form

§ 192. In the interrogative form, the personal pronoun follows the verb:

avons-nous?

chanterez-vous?

§ 198. When the first person singular ends in e, an acut accent is placed over the e in order to make the pronunciation easier:

chanté-je?

N.B.—This form of interrogation is very seldom used. The *periphrastic* form is generally preferred (cf. § 196):

Est-ce-que je chante?

§ 194. When the third person singular ends in a vowel, there is a t between the verb and the pronoun:

a-t-il?

y a-t-11?

aura-t-il?

chante-t-il?

§ 195. When the subject is a noun, it comes before the verb, and the personal pronoun after the verb:

Votre devoir est-il fini?

Quand vos amis arriveront-ils? (Cf. § 286.)

§ 196. The periphrastic form with est-ce que is very often used instead of the ordinary form:

> Est-ce que vous chanterez demain? Est-ce que votre devoir est fini? Ouand est-ce que vos amis arriveront? Est-ce qu'il y a beaucoup de monde? Pourquoi est-ce que vous avez fait cela?

Examples of Conjugation

ai-je	suis-je	chant é -je	finis-je
as-tu	es-tu	chantes-tu	finis-tu
a-t-il	est-il	chante-t-1l	finit-il
avons-nous	sommes-nous	chantons-nous	finissons-nous
etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.
aurai-je	serai-je	chanterai-je	finirai-je
auras-tu	seras-tu	chanteras-tu	finiras-tu
aura- t -il	sera-t-il	chantera- t -il	finira-t-il
aurons-nous	serons-nous	chanterons-nous	finirons-nous
etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.
у а-	t-il ya	vait-ıl y aı	ıra- t -il

Negative form

§ 197. When conjugating a verb negatively, the adverb ne is placed before the verb, and the complementary word after the verb. See §§ 145-146.

EXAMPLES OF CONJUGATION

je n'ai pas	je ne suis plus		je ne chante jamais
tu n'as pas	tu n'es pl	us	tu ne chantes jamais
etc.	etc.		etc.
∙je ı	n'ai rien eu	je n'ai	pas encore fini
tu	n'as rien eu	tu n'as	s pas encore fini
€	etc.	etc.	
il n'y a ps	ıs ılnı'ya	rien	il n'y a jamais
		T 0.0	

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Negative-interrogative form

§ 198.

Examples of Conjugation

i. N'ai-je pas N'as-tu pas N'as-tu plus N'auras-tu jamais fini N'a-t-il pas etc.

N'ai-je pas N'es-tu plus N'auras-tu jamais fini N'aura-t-il jamais fini etc.

u. Est-ce que je n'ai pas
Est-ce que tu n'as pas
etc.

Est-ce que je ne suis plus
Est-ce que tu n'es plus
etc.

- iii. N'est-ce pas qu'il chante bien?
 N'est-ce pas qu'il a bien chanté?
- iv. Vos amis ne viendront-ils pas?
 Vos amis ne sont-ils pas arrivés?
- v. Est-ce que vos amis ne viendront pas?
 Est-ce que vos amis ne sont pas arrives?
- vi. N'est-ce pas que vos amis viendront?
 N'est-ce pas que vos amis sont arrives?

Reflexive form

§ 199. In the reflexive form, the objective personal pronoun is placed immediately before the verb:

le me cache.

§ 200. In the imperative affirmative, the objective personal pronoun follows the verb, and me, te, are replaced by moi, toi.

Compare: Cache-toi. Ne te cache pas (Cf. § 105.)

§ 201. The compound tenses of reflexive verbs are always formed with the auxiliary être.

Examples of Conjugation

i. Je me cache. Tu te caches. Il (elle) se cache.

> Nous nous cachons. Vous yous cachez. Ils (elles) se cachent.

ii. Me cacherai-je? Te cacheras-tu? Se cachera-t-il? Etc.

iii. Je ne me cache pas Tu ne te caches pas. Il ne se cache pas. Etc.

iv. Ne me cacherai-je pas? Ne te cacheras-tu pas? Ne se cachera-t-il pas? Ftc

v. Cache-toi! Cachons-nous! Cachez-vous!

Je me suis cache, Tu t'es caché. Il s'est caché. Elle s'est cachée.1 Nous nous sommes cachés.1 Vous vous êtes cachés. Ils se sont cachés. Elles se sont cachées.

Me serai-je caché? Te seras-tu caché? Se sera-t-il caché? Se sera-t-elle cachée? Etc.

Je ne me suis pas caché. Tu ne t'es pas caché. Il ne s'est pas caché. Elle ne s'est pas cachée Etc.

Ne me serai-je pas caché? Ne te seras-tu pas caché? Ne se sera-t-il pas caché? Ne se sera-t-elle pas cachée? Etc.

Ne te cache pas! Ne nous cachons pas! Ne vous cachez pas!

' Cf. § 250.

§ 202. The reflexive form with en and y.

Examples of Conjugation

i. Je m'en moque.
Tu t'en moques.
Il s'en moque.
Nous nous en moquons.
Vous vous en moquez.
Ils s'en moquent.

Je m'y fie.
Tu t'y fies.
Il s'y fie
Nous nous y fions.
Vous vous y fiez
Ils s'y fient.

ii. Je m'en suis moqué.
Tu t'en es moqué.
Il s'en est moqué.
Elle s'en est moquée.
Nous nous en sommes moqués.
Vous vous en êtes moqués.
Ils s'en sont moqués.
Elles s'en sont moquées.

Je m'y suis fié.
Tu t'y es fié.
Il s'y est fié
Elle s'y est fiée.
Nous nous y sommes fiés.
Vous vous y êtes fiés.
Ils s'y sont fiés.
Elles s'y sont fiées.

iii. M'en moquais-je?
T'en moquais-tu? etc

M'y fiais-je? T'y fiais-tu? ctc.

iv. M'en serais-je moqué?

M'y serais-je fié ?

v. Je ne m'en moque pas.

Je ne m'y fie pas.

vi. Je ne m'en suis pas moqué.

Je ne m'y suis pas fié. Ne m'y fierais-je pas '

vii. Ne m'en moquerais-je pas?

viii. Ne m'en serais-je pas moqué?

Ne m'y serais-je pas fié?

1x. Moque-t'en!
Moquons-nous en!
Moquez-vous en!

Fie-t'y!
Fions-nous y!
Fiez-vous y!

x. Ne t'en moque pas! Ne nous en moquons pas! Ne vous en moquez pas! Ne t'y fie pas! Ne nous y fions pas! Ne vous y fiez pas!

PECULIARITIES OF SOUND AND SPELLING

§ 203. VERBS WITH VARIABLE STEMS.

Certain verbs have two forms for the stem of the present indicative and present subjunctive:

- i. a weak form, which is found before strong (i.e. stressed) endings (ons, ez).
- ii. a strong form, which is found before consonants (s, t) and mute endings (e, es, ent).

Compare:

appel-er j'appell-e nous appel-ons lev-er je lèv-e nous lev-ons

and see §§ 27-32.

§ 204. Appeler, jeter, etc.

Present group:

Present participle: appel-ant, jet-ant.
Weak stem: appel-

Weak stem: appel- jet-Strong stem: appell- jett-

See §§ 27-30 and 31 (i.), and compare mener, espérer.

Present indicative Present subjunctive i'appell-e je jett-e i'appell-e ie jett-e tu appell-es tu jett-es tu appell-es tu jett-es il appell-e il jett-e il appell-e il jett-e nous appel-ons nous jet-ons nous appel-ions nous jet-ions vous appel-ez vous jet-ez vous appel-lez vous iet-iez ils appell-ent ils iett-ent ils appell-ent ils jett-ent

Imperfect: j'appel-ais, je jet-ais, etc.

Imperative: appelle, appelons—jette, jetons, etc.

Past group:

Conjugated regularly: j'appel-ai, je jet-ai. j'appel-asse, je jet-asse.

Future group:

Future ; j'appeller-ai, je jetter-ai, etc. Future in the Past : j'appeller-ais, je jetter-ais, etc

§ 205. Mener (semer, peser, lever), espérer, etc.

Present group:

Present participle: men-ant, espér-ant
Weak stem: men- espérStrong stem: mèn- espèr-

For explanations, see appeler, jeter (§ 204).

Present subjunctive Present indicative ie mèn-e i'espèr-e je měn-e 1'espèr-e tu espèr-es tu mèn-es tu mèn-es tu espèr-es il espèr-c ıl mèn-e ıl mèn-e ıl espèr-e nous espér-ions nous espér-ons nous men-ions nous men-ons vous espér-lez vous men-lez vous espér-ez vous men-ez ıls men-ent ils espèr-cut ils espèr-ent ıls mèn-ent

Imperfect : je men-ais, j'espér-ais, etc.

Imperative: men-e, men-ons, espèr-e, espér-ons, etc.

Past group :

Conjugated regularly: je men-ai, j'espér-ai. je men-asse, j'espér-asse.

Future group:

Future: je mėner-ai, but j'espérer-ai. Future in the Past: je mėner-ais, but j'espérerais.

See § 88.

§ 206. VERBS IN -CER, -GER.

Verbs ending in -cer (such as placer, annoncer) take a cedilla under the c before a or o, to show that the c has the sound of [s] and not that of [k] (cf. § 26, iv.):

je place, but nous plaç-ons, je plaç-ais.

Verbs ending in -ger (such as manger, juger) take an e before a or o, to show that the g has the sound of [3] and not that of [g]:

je mange, but nous mange-ons, je mange-ais.

Imperfect

je plaç-ais
tu plaç-ais
tu plaç-ais
tu mange-ais
tu mange-ais
il plaç-ait
nous plac-ions
vous plac-iez
uls plaç-aient
je mange-ais
tu mange-ais
vu mange-ait
nous mang-ions
vous mang-iez
ils plaç-aient
ils mange-aient

Similarly: Imperative: place, place, placeons. mange, mange-ons.

Past: je plaç-ai, je mange-ai. Imperf. subj.: je plaç-asse, je mange-asse.

§ 207. VERBS IN -AYER, -OYER, -UYER.

Verbs ending in -ayer (as payer, essayer),

-oyer (as employer, noyer),

-uyer (as ennuyer, essuyer),

change y into i before an e mute.

Examples:

Present indicative

i'emploi-e je pal-e i'essui-e tu emploi-es tu pai-es tu essui-es il emploi-e il essui-e il pai-e nous employ-ons nous pay-ons nous essuy-ons vous employ-ez vous pay-ez vous essuy-ez ils emploi-ent ils pal-ent ils essul-ent

Imperfect: je pay-ais, j'employ-ais, j'essuy-ais. Future: je paler-ai, j'emploler-ai, j'essuler-ai, etc. § 208.

The verb envoyer is conjugated like employer, except in the future and in the future in the past:

Future | Fut in the Past (Condit)
j'enverr-ais
tu enverr-as
il enverr-a, etc | il enverr ait, etc.

N.B.—i. Like appeler, conjugate all verbs ending in -eler (as atteler, ficeler).

Exception: geler, conjugated like mener: je gèle, nous gelons, ils gèlent—je gèleral.

ii. Like jeter, conjugate all verbs ending in -eter (as cacheter, étiqueter).

Exception: acheter, conjugated like mener:

j'achète, nous achetons, ils achètent-j'achèterai.

- iii. Like mener, conjugate semer, peser lever, achever, etc
- iv. Like espérer, conjugate secher, repeter, ceder, etc.
- v. Like placer, conjugate glacer, annoncer, etc. Like manger, conjugate juger, nager, etc
- vi. Like payer, conjugate essayer, effrayer, etc. Like employer, conjugate noyer, nettoyer, etc. Like essuyer, conjugate ennuyer, appuyer, etc.

§ 209. The verb hair.

Present participle: haïss-ant. Stem: haïss-

Present indicative

je hais 1 [$_3 \ni \epsilon$]nous haïss-ons [nuais5]tu hais [$_1 \notin \epsilon$]vous haïss-ez [vuaise]il hait [$_1 \in \epsilon$]ils haïss-ent [$_1 \in \epsilon$]

N.B.—(a) This verb takes a diæresis on the *i* throughout, except: in the *singular* of the pres. indic. and in the 2nd pers. sing. of the imperative.

The object of the diæresis is to show that a and i are pronounced as two distinct vowels (cf. § 26, v.).

There is therefore not merely a difference of spelling, but of pronunciation.

§§ 209-214

(b) The h is aspirate (cf. § 38) in all persons and tenses without exception: je haïrai [39aire], etc.

<i>Imperfect</i> je ha ī ss-ais	Pres. subj. je haïss-e	Imperative hais, haïss-ons, etc.
Past Historic je ha-īs	Imperf. subj. je ha-īsse	Past participle hal
Future	Fut. in the Past (or Condit.)	
je haīr-ai	je haīr-ais	1

- § 210. The verb benir has two past participles:
- (a) béni, fem. bénie (happy): un jour béni, une année bénie.
- (b) bénit, fem. bénite (blessed): du pain bénit, de l'eau bénite.

The distinction seems to be: (a) blessed by God; (b) blessed by a priest.

DEAD CONJUGATIONS (cf. § 174)

We give below only those verbs which offer features sommon to a group of verbs.

For other verbs, see the alphabetical list, pp. 165-173.

§ 211. Peculiarities of the present.

In the present indicative and present subjunctive, the most important features are:

- (a) the last consonant of the stem is generally dropped before the endings s and t. (Cf. § 40.)
- (b) in verbs with variable stems, the difference between the strong and the weak syllables is marked by a change of vowel. (Cf. §§ 30-32.)

§ 212. The stem of the future and future in the past is very often weakened:

(a) either by the dropping of the last vowel, which has become unstressed:

mourir, mour(1)rai, mourrai; devoir, dev(01)rai, devrai.

(b) or by the change of that vowel into e mute:

faire, ferai; cueillir, cueillerai.

(c) sometimes a d is inserted before r:

viendrai, voudrai, vaudrai, faudra

(Cf. Latin ten(e)rum, Fr. tendre, Engl tender; cin(e)rem, ,, cendre, ,, cinder.)

§ 213.

i. The imperfect indicative is always regular (stem of the present participle + endings).

ii. The imperfect subjunctive is always formed from the same stem as the past.

iii. The future in the past is always formed from the same stem as the future.

§ 214. Verbs in -ir with unenlarged stem. Model: partir. In these verbs, the last consonant of the stem is dropped before the endings s, s, t. (Cf. § 40.)

Present participle: part-ant. Stem: part-

Present je pars (for part-s) nous part-ons.
tu pars (,, part-s) vous part ez.
il part (,, part-t) ils part-ent.

The other tenses are regular:

Imperfect: je part-ais, tu part-ais, etc. Pres. subj.: je part-e, tu part-es, ctc. Imperative: pars, part-ons, etc.

Past Historic: je partis, tu partis, etc Imperf. subj.: je partisse, tu partisses, etc.

Future: je partirai, tu partiras, etc.

Fut. in the Past: je partirais, tu partirais, etc.

Past participle: parti.

§ 215. Verbs conjugated	
dormir: pres. partic., do	rm-ant; stem, dorm-
mentir. " me	ent-ant; " ment-
sentir: ", sen	nt-ant, ,, sent-
sortir: ", sor	rt-ant; ,, sort-
servir: ,, ser	rv-ant, ,, serv-
bouillir ,, bo	uill-ant. ,, bouill-
N.B.—In bouil-, ill is one so	ound, [j].
Present I	ndicative
je dors (for dorm-s)	je sors (for sort-s)
tu dors (,, dorm-s)	tu sors (,, sort-s)
il dort (,, dorm-t)	ıl sort (,, sort-t)
nous dorm-ons, etc.	nous sort-ons, etc
je mens (for ment-s)	je sers (for serv-s)
tu mens (,, ment-s)	tu sers (,, serv-s)
il ment (,, ment-t)	ıl sert (,, serv-t)
nous ment-ons, etc.	nous serv-ons, etc.
: (f	in hour (for houll ()
je sens (for sent-s)	je bous (for bouill-s)
tu sens (,, sent-s)	tu bous (,, bouill-s)
il sent (,, sent-t)	il bout (,, bouill-t)
nous sent-ons, etc	nous bouill-ons, etc.

All other tenses are regular.

Like mentir, conjugate the reflexive verb se repentir.

§ 216. Verbs in -andre, -endre, -ondre

In these verbs, the final d of the stem is *not* dropped before the endings. On the contrary, it is the ending t (3rd pers. sing.) which is dropped ($cf \S 179$)

répandre: pres part, répand-ant; tem, répandvend-ant: vendvendre: fondre: fond-ant: fondje vend-s je répand-s je fon**d**-s Present tu répand-s tu fond-s tu vend-s *indicative* il répand il vend il fond •nous répand-ons, vend-ons, fond-ons, etc.

The other tenses are formed regularly

Past Historic: je répandis, je vendis, je fondis Past participle: répandu, vendu, fondu N B.—Other verbs ending in -dre (such as perdie, mordie, tordre, coudre, moudre) offer the same peculiarity as those in -andre, and drop the t of the 3rd pers sing present indicative il perd, il mord, il tord, il coud, il moud

For absoudre, dissoudre, résoudre, see the alphabetical hat of verbs, pp. 165-173

§ 217. Verbs in -aindre, -eindre, -oindre

plaindre: pres part., plaign-ant, stem. plaignpeindre: ,, peign-ant, ... peignjoindre: ,, joign-ant, ... joign-

Before s, t, the final group gn becomes ng then the g falls See § 42, u.

plains is for plaing-s, **peins** is for peing s, **joins** is for joing-s

Present de je plains pe peins pe joins tu plains tu peins tu joins de joins de joins de joins de joins de joins de joint de joint

Past Historic: je plaignis, je peignis, je joignis Past participle: plaint, peint, joint

The other tenses are formed regularly

Like plaindre, conjugate craindre, contraindre, etc., peindre, ,, atteindre, éteindre, etc

§ 218. Verbs in -aître, -oître

connaître: pres part, connaiss-ant, stem, connaissnaître: """, naiss-ant, "", naisscroître: """, croiss-ant, "", croiss-

Past Historic: je connus, je NAQUIS, je crūs. Past participle: connu, NÉ, crū

The other tenses are formed regularly Like connaître, conjugate paraître.

In the singular, the ss of the stem is reduced to s connaiss-becomes connaiss, and as this stem already ends in s, it is unnecessary to add another s for the ending See finit, § 190

§ 219. Conduire, dire, lire, lu	ilre, suffire
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conduire: pres part., conduis-ant; stem, conduisdire: ... dis-ant; ... dislire: ... lis-ant; ... lisluire: ... luis-ant; ... luissuffire: ... suffis-ant; ... suffis-

Present indicative

je conduis ¹	je dis 1	je lis ¹ tu lis		je suffis 1
tu conduis	tu dis	tu lis	tu luis	tu suffis
il conduit	il dit	ıl lit	il luit	il suffit
nous conduis-ons	nous dis-ons	nous lis-ons	nous luis-ons	nous suffis-on
vous conduis-ez	vous DITES ²	vous lis-ez	vous luis-ez	vous suffis-ez
ils conduis-ent	ils dis-ent	ils lis-ent	ils luis-ent	ils suffis-ent

Past Historic: je conduisis, je dis, je lus, je luisis, je suffis.

Past participle: conduit, dit, lu, lui, suffi.

The other tenses are formed regularly.

N.B.—dire, imperative: dis, disons, dites.

Like conduire, conjugate réduire, produire, séduire, construire, instruire, etc.

§ 220. Fuir, voir, croire, traire

fuir: pres part., fuy-ant; stem, fuy-voir: ", voy-ant; ", voy-croire: ", croy-ant; ", croy-traire: ", tray-ant; ", tray-

The final y is changed into i before s and t, and before s mute.

Cf. § 207, verbs in -ayer, -oyer, -uyer.

Present indicative

je fui-s	je vol-s	je croi-s	je trai-s
tu fui-s	tu voi-s	tu croi-s	tu trai-s
il fu i -t	ıl vo i -t	il croi-t	il trai-t
nous fuy-ons	nous voy-ons	nous croy-ons	nous tray-ons
vous fuy-ez	vous voy-ez	vous croy-ez	vous tray-ez
ils ful-ent	ils vol-ent	ils croi-ent	ils trai-ent

¹ As the stem ends in s, it is unnecessary to add another s for the ending. Cf. §§ 190 and 218.

^a All compounds of dire have the form dises instead of dites: medises, contredises, interdises, etc. Except: redire, vous redites and maudire (pres. part. maudissant) nous maudissons, vous maudissez, ils maudissent.

Present subjunctive

je fu i -e	j e voi-e	je croj e	je traj e
tu fui-es	tu voi-es	tu croi-es	tu tral-es
il fui-e	il vol-e	il croi-e	il tral e
nous fuy-ions	nous voy-ions	nous croy-ions	
vous fuy-iez	vous voy-iez	vous croy-lez	yous tray-iez
ils fui-ent	ils vol-ent	ils crol-ent	ils trai-ent

Imperfect: je fuy-ais, je voy-ais, je croy-ais, je tray-ais

Imperative

fu i -s	voi-s	croi-s	trai-s
qu'il fu i -e	qu'il voi-e	qu'il croi e	qu'il trai e
fuy-ons	voy-ons	croy-ons	tray-ons
fuy-ez	voy-ez	croy-ez	tray-ez
qu'ils fu i -ent	qu'ils voi-ent	qu'ils croi-ent	qu'ils trai-ent

Past Historic · je fuis, je vis, je crus.

N.B.—Traire has no past

Past participle : fui, vu, cru, trait.

The other tenses are formed regularly, except the future of voir: je verral, and the future in the past: je verrals.

Like traire, conjugate extraire, soustraire, distraire, etc.

Like fuir, conjugate s'enfuir.

§ 221. Couvrir, ouvrir, offrir, souffrir

These four verbs offer the following peculiarities:

- (a) in the pres. indic. the endings are those of the first conjugation. Compare cueillir, § 222.
- (b) the past participle ends in ert

couvr-ant

Present participle

ouvr-ant | offr-ant | souffr-ant

Present indicative			
je couvr-e	j'ouvr e	j'offr-e	je souffr-e tu souffr-es
tu couvr-es	tu ouvr-es	tu offr-es	tu souffr-cs
il couvr-e			ป souffr-e
nous couvr-ons			
vous couvr-ez	vous ouvr-ez	vous offr-cz	vous souffr-ez
ils couvr-ent	ıls ouvr-ent	ils offr-ent	ils souffr-ent

Past

je couvris | j'ouvris | j'offris | je souffris

Past participle

couvert offert souffert

The other tenses are formed regularly.

§ 222. Cueillir

This verb offers the following peculiarities:

(a) In the pres. indic. the endings are those of the first conjugation. Compare couvrir.

(b) The stem of the future is weakened. Compare: faire, ie ferai.

Present participle : cueillant

Present indicative

je cueill-e nous cueill-ons tu cueill-es vous cueill-ez il cueill-e ils cueill-ent

Past Historic: je cueillis, etc.

Future: Je cueillerai, tu cueilleras, etc.

Past participle: cueilli.

The other tenses are regular.

VERBS WITH VARIABLE STEM

In the following verbs (§§ 223-229), the stem of the present indicative and present subjunctive has two forms—a weak form which is found before stressed endings (-ons, -ez, etc.), and a strong form which is found before consonants (-s, -t) and mute endings (-e, -es, -ent). Cf. § 203.

§ 223. a : ai. Savoir

This verb has two weak stems:

sav- (found also in the adjective savant) and sach- (found in pres. partic. sachant).

Strong stem: sai(v). Cf. §§ 27-80 and 31, ii.

VERBS

Pres. subjunctive Pres. indicative je sais ie sach-e tu sach-es tu sais il sach-e il sait nous sach-ions nous sav-ons vous sach-iez vous sav-ez ils sach-ent ils sav-ent

Imperfect: je sav-ais, etc.

Imperative : sache, qu'il sache, sachons, sachez, qu'ils sachent

Past Historic: je sus, etc.

Future: je saurai [for sav(o1)r-a1].

Past participle : su.

Tenir, venir, and their compounds § 224. e : ie.

Present participle: ten-ant, ven-ant. Weak stem: ten-, ven-

tien-, vien-. Strong stem:

See §§ 27-30, and 31, iii. : and compare acquérir, assemr.

Present indicative		Present subjunctive	
je tiens tu tiens il tient nous ten-ons vous ten-ez ils tienn-ent 1	ie viens	je tienn-e 1 tu tienn-es il tienn-e nous ten-ions vous ten-lez ils tienn-ent	je vienn-e 1 tu vienn-es il vienn e nous ven-ions vous ven-iez ils vienn-ent

Imperfect: je ten-ais, je ven-ais, etc.

Imper. : tiens, qu'il tienn-e, ten-ons, ten-ez, qu'ils tienn-ent. viens, qu'il vienn-e, ven-ons, ven-ez, qu'ils vienn-ent

Past Historic : je tins, je vins, etc.

Future: je tiendral, tu tiendras, etc.; je viendral, tu viendras Past participle : tenu, venu.

Like tenir, conjugate appartenir, relenir, contenir, soutenir, obtenir.

Like venir, conjugate devenir, revenir, convenir, parvenir, se souvenir.

¹ For nn, see § 33 and compare . ils prenn ent.

ils assev-ent

§ 225. e: ie.

ils acquièr-ent 2 | ils assey-ent

Acquérir, asseoir (asseoir is generally reflexive)

Present participle: acquér-ant, assey-ant.

Weak stem: acquér-, assey-.
Strong stem: acquier-, assied-.1

See §§ 27-30, and 31, iii., and compare tenir, venir.

Present subjunctive Present indicative i'assieds i'acquièr-e 2 i'assev-e i'acquiers tu acquièr-es tu assev-es tu assieds tu acquiers il assied il acquièr-e il assey-e il acquiert nous acquér-ons | nous assey-ons | nous acquér-ions | nous assey-ions vous assey-iez vous acquér-lez vous acquér-ez vous assey-ez

Imperfect: j'acquér-ais, etc., j'assey-ais, etc.

Imperative: acquiers, qu'il acquièr-e, acquér-ons, acquér-ez, qu'ils acquièr-ent.

ils acquièr-ent

assieds, qu'il assey-e, assey-ons, assey-ez, qu'ils assey-ent.

Past Historic: j'acquis, j'assis, etc. Future: j'acquerral, j'assiéral, etc. Past participle: acquis, assis.

Like acquérir, conjugate conquérir, enquérir, requérir.

§ 226. e : oi. Recevoir

Present participle: recev-ant. Weak stem: recev-. Strong stem: reçoiv-. See §§ 27-30, and 81, iv.

Present indicative
pe reçois (for reçoiv-s)
tu reçois
il reçoit
nous recev-ons
vous recev-ez
ils reçoiv-ent

Present subjunctive
je reçoiv-e
tu reçoiv-e
tu reçoiv-es
il reçoiv-es
vous recev-ions
vous recev-lez
ils reçoiv-ent

The v is dropped before s, t; see § 40.

The c takes a cedilla before o, u; see § 26, iv.

Impersect : je recev-ais, etc.

Imperative: reçois, qu'il reçoiv-e,

recev-ons, recev-ez, qu'ils reçoiv-ent.

The d comes from Latin sedere. For d, see § 88.

VERBS §§ 225-228

Past Historic : je reçus, etc

Future: je recevrai [for recev(01)ra1].

Past participle : recu.

Like recevoir, conjugate devoir (past partic du, fem line), abercevoir, décevoir, concecoir, etc.

§ 227. u: oi.

Boire

Present participle: buv-ant Weak stem: buv-. Strong stem: boiv-. See §§ 27-30, and 31, iv. N. B.

Present indicative
je bois (for boiv-s)
tu bois
il boit
nous buv-ons
vous buv-ez
ils boiv-ent

Present subjunctive
je boiv-e
tu boiv-e
tu boiv-es
il boiv-e
nous buv-ions
vous buv ie/
ils boiv-ent

Imperfect: je buv-ais, tu buv-ais, etc

Imperative: bois, qu'il boiv-e, buv-ons, buv-ez, qu'ils boiv ent,

Past Historic: je bus, tu bus, etc Future: je borrar, tu borras, etc

Past participle : bu.

§ 228. ou : eu.

Mourir

Present participle: mour-ant.
Weak stem: mourStrong stem: meur-.

See §§ 27-30, and 31, v, and compare vouloir, feavoir,

Present indicative
je meurs
tu meurs
il meurt
nous mour-ons
vous mour-ez
ils meur-ent

Present subjunctive
je meur-e
tu meur es
il meur-e
nous mour-lors
vous mour-lez
ils meur-ent

Impersect: je mour-ais, etc. Imperative: meurs, qu'il meur-e,

mour-ons, mour-ez, qu'ils meur-ent.

Past Historic: je mourus, etc.

Future: je mourrai, tu mourras, etc.

Past participle: MORT.

§ 229. ou: eu.

Vouloir, mouvoir, pouvoir

Present participle: voul-ant, mouv-ant, pouv-ant.

Weak stem: voul-, mouv-, pouv-.

Strong stem: veul- (veuill-), meuv-, peuv-.

See §§ 27-30, and 31, v.

Pouvoir has another weak stem puiss- (also found in the adjective puissant).

Present indicative

je veux ¹	je meus	je peux or je puis 2
tu veux	tu meus	tu peux
il veut	il meut	il peut
nous voul-ons	nous mouv-ons	nous pouv-ons
vous voul- ez	vous mouv-ez	vous pouv-ez
ils veul -ent	ils meuv-ent	ils peuv-ent

Present subjunctive

je veuili -e ³	je meuv -e	je puiss-e
tu veuill-es	tu meuv-es	tu puiss-es
il veuill-e	il meuv-e	il puiss-e
nous voul-ions	nous mouv-ions	nous puiss-ions
vous voul-iez	vous mouv-iez	vous puiss-iez
ils veuill-ent	ils meuv-ent	ils puiss-ent

Impersect: je voul-ais, je mouv-ais, je pouv-ais.

Imperative: veuill-e, qu'il veuill-e,

veuill-ons, veuill-ez, qu'ils veuill-ent.

meus, qu'il meuv-e,

mouv-ons, mouv-ez, qu'ils meuv-ent. pouvoir has no imperative.

Past Historic: je voulus, je mus, je pus. Future: je voudral, je mouvral, je pourral. Past participle: voulu, mû (fem. mue), pu.

1 Veux stands for veul-s, meus for meuv-s, etc.

* Puis is used particularly in the interrogative form: Puis-je?

* I becomes mouillée and is written ill [j]; see § 42 and compare ie vaille (valoir).

4 Veuillez is used particularly in polite forms of speech, e.g.,

VERBS **66** 220-231

The following verbs do not belong to any definite group, but have certain peculiarities common to some other verbs.

§ 230. Valoir, falloir

These two verbs have the following peculiarities:

- (a) in the pres. indicative, I is vocalised into u, of § 41.
- (b) in the pres. subjunctive, I becomes mouillée and is written ill [i]. Cf. § 42, and compare j'aille (subj. of aller) and je venille (subj. of vouloir)

Present participle: val-ant, fall ant.

Pres. indic	ative	Pres. sub	junctive
je vaux tu vaux il vaut nous val-ons vous val-ez ils val-ent	ıl faut	je vaill e tu vaill-es il vaill e nous val ions vous val-iez ils vaill-ent	ıl faill e

Imperfect : je val-ais, tu val-ais, etc. ; il fall-ait

Imperative: vaux, qu'il vaille, val-ons, val ez, qu'ils vaill-ent; qu'il faill-e.

Past Historic : je valus, tu valus, etc. ; il fallut. Future: je vaudrai, tu vaudras, etc ; il faudra Past participle : valu, fallu.

§ 231.

Aller

Present participle: all ant. all-Stem:

Pres. subjunctive Pres. indicative j'aill-e 2 nous all-ions nous all-ons je **vais** 1 tu aill-es vous all-102 vous all-cz tu vas il aili-e ils aili-ent ils vont il va

Imperfect : j'all-ais, etc

Imperative: va,3 qu'il aill-e, all-ons, all-ez, qu'ils aill-ent.

Past Historic : 1'allai, tu allas, etc Future : j'irai, tu iras, il ira, etc 4

Past participle : allé.

The forms vais, vas, va, vont come from the Latin vado, valis, vadit, vadunt.

In aille, the l of the stem becomes mountles; of § 42 and compare je vaille, je veuslle, etc.

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The s is retained before y: vas-y.

The future is formed from the Latin infinitive ire

§ 232.

Prendre

Present participle: pren-ant Stem: pren-.

Pres. indicative
je prends
tu prends
il prend
nous pren-ons
vous pren-ez
ils prenn-ent

Pres. subjunctive
je prenn-e
tu prenn-e
tu

Imperfect : je pren-ais, etc

Imperative: prends, qu'il prenn e,

pren-ons, pren-ez, qu'ils prenn-ent.

Past Historic : je pris, tu pris, etc

Future: je prendrai Past participle: pris.

Like prendre, conjugate apprendre, comprendre, surprendre

\$ 233

Faire

Present participle: fais-ant Stem: fais-.

Pres indicative
je fais
tu fais
tu fais
il fait
nous fais-ons [fiz3]
vous FAITES 3 [fet]
ils FONT

Pres. subjunctive
je fass-e
tu fass-e
tu fass-es
il fass-e
nous fass-ions
vous fass-ie/
ils fass-ent

Imperfect : je fais-ais [1025], etc.

Imperatico : fais, qu'il fass-e, fais-ons, FAITES, qu'ils fass-ent

Past Historic: je fis, tu fis, etc. Future: je feral, tu feras, etc.

Past participie : fait.

1 The d comes from Latin pr(eh)endere, cf. asseoir

For nn, see § 33 and compare : ils vienn-ent.

* Compare: nous dis-ons, vous DITES.

· Compare : je cueillerai.

XVIII. SYNTAX OF THE VERB

Agreement of Subject and Verb

- § 234. The verb agrees with its subject in number and person:
 - L'oiseau chante. Les oiseaux chantent.

C'est moi qui ai pulé.

- N.B -Impersonal verbs are always singular, even when the real subject is plural:
 - Il y a des cas . . . Il se trouve des gens

Il arriva des choses

§ 235. When there are several subjects, the verb is in the plural:

> Pierre et Maurice partirent pour la ferme Mon ami et moi, nous arriverons demain soir.

§ 236. When the subject is a collective expression (i.e., singular as regards form, but plural as regards sense), the verb is in the singular:

La foule se dispersa.

La petite troupe était rangée contre le mur

Exception.—If the collective expression is followed by a genitive plural, the verb may be either singular or plural. according to the sense (i.e., according as the persons or objects referred to are considered as separate units, or as one collective whole). Examples:

- Une douzaine d'aufs coûte 25 sous Une douzaine de livres étalent sur la table.
- Une toule de paysans entourait l'auberge. Une foule d'animaux vivent dans la forêt.
 - Le reste des oiseaux s'envola (or s'envolèrent).

§ 236–239

N.B.—After la plupart, the verb is always in the plural: La plupart croient que le bonheur est dans les plaisirs.

Similarly, such expressions as beaucoup, peu, combien, after which a genitive plural is implied, are followed by a plural verb:

Beaucoup l'ont essayé, peu ont réussi (=Beaucoup de gens, peu de gens)

Combien voudralent être à votre place! (=Combien de gens).

The Infinitive (verbal noun, cf. § 169)

§ 287. The infinitive may be used as subject of the verb:

Mentir est honteux (=Le mensonge est honteux).

§ 238. The infinitive may be used as direct object (without preposition):

1 after such verbs as: savoir, pouvoir, devoir, vouloir, préférer, oser, sembler, faillir.

Je sais lire. Il veut partir. Nous préférons rester J'ai failli tomber. Vous semblez croire.

Cf. . . . "He knew Hunself to sing and build the lofty rhyme."

MILTON, Lycidas.

After pour oir and detoir, one should always use a simple infinitive, not the perfect infinitive as in English Examples:

Vous n'auriez pas dû faire cela, "You ought not to have done that" (compare the English vulgarism: You hadn't ought to do that).

Vous avez dû itre bien fatigué, "You must have been very tired."

Vous aurier pu vous tuer, "You might have killed yourself."

Il aurait dû v non, "There ought to have been."

ii. after declarative verbs and verbs of believing $(\epsilon/|\xi|254)$

When the principal verb has the same subject as the dependent verb, the latter stands in the infinitive;

Il déclare avoir dit . . . (Il déclare qu'il a dit . . .)

Je croyais voir . . . (Je croyais que je voyais

Nous espérons venir (Nous espérons que nous viendrons)

Cf. "I did not think to shed a tear In all my miseries."

SHAKE SPEARL, Homy VIII

ni after fave, laisser, voir, entendre, sentir

(N|B) The infinitive must be placed immediately after the verb.)

One of two things may happen

Either (a) The object of the verb is an accusative + infinitive:

J'ai vu passer les soldats

The noun soldars is at the same time the object of ru and the subject of passer

Similarly: J'ai fait_venir mon ficre.

Je l'entends crier.

Laissez_venir les enfants (cf. Latin : Smite parvulos venire)

or (b) The object of the verb is a bare infinitive (equivalent to an English verb d noun in me).

J'entends_chanter, "I hear sincing "

§ 239. It often happens that the infinitive is transilize (i.e., is itself followed by an accusative). For example:

J'ai entendu jouer_cet_air.

On fit fermer_les_portes.

Such sentences are entirely different from the examples in § 238, iii. (a)

air is not the accusative of entendu, but of **jouer** (I heard playing_this_tune).

portes is not the accusative of fit, but of former (They caused shutting_the_gates).

The nearest English equivalent would be supplied by a bassive participle or infinitive:

I heard this tune played.

They caused the gates to be shut.

But examples of the French construction may be found in English:

"They caused shut the gates of the tower." — SIR WALTER SCOTT, Old Mortality.

N.B.—Thus kind of construction requires great care in translating, because the same sentence may admit of two interpretations.—Thus: Je les entends chanter may mean:

- (a) I hear them singing (when les refers to persons)
- (b) I hear singing them, i.e., I hear them sung (when les refers to songs).
- § 240. When the infinitive is transitive, the dative is generally used to indicate the person by whom the action is done. For this reason it is known as the dative of the agent:

L'ai fait lire la lettre à mon père.

Je lui ai fait lire la lettre.

Je la lui ai fait lire.

In many cases it is preferable to use par rather than the dative, in order to avoid confusion. Thus, the phrase: Je lui ferai rendre l'argent may mean:

- (a) I shall make him return the money (I shall get it returned by him).
- (b) I shall get the money returned to him.

But in:

Je vous ferai rendre l'argent par le caissier, no confusion is possible.

Always the dative if the principal verb is faire With other verbs the dative is only necessary if both objects are personal pronouns:

Je la lui ai vu ramasser

But it is possible to say:

Je l'ai vu ramasser la bourse

The following examples will help students to understand these difficult constructions:

Je vous les ferai porter (tico meanings) Je vous les ferai porter par lui Je leur ai fait porter le paquet (tico meanings). Laissez-le s'en aller. On l'a fait partir. Nous l'avons vu tuer devant nous. Nous le ferons faire exprès. Ne vous laissez pas attraper. Un bruit sourd se faisait entendre. Faites-vous faire un habit neuf. Je le lui ai vu faire très souvent. Je vous l'ai entendu dire. Il s'est fait couper les cheveux. Faites voir à vos parents que vous les aimez. Nous avons fait boire du vin au blessé. J'ai fait raconter l'histoire par votre aim. J'ai fait raconter l'histoire à votre aim. (tie o meanings)

§ 241. The infinitive is used after all prepositions except en (cf. §§ 150 and 246).

The prepositions most commonly used are à and de A full and exhaustive treatment of the subject cannot be given here, but the following indications will be found very helpful:

§ 242. The preposition à generally implies tendency. It is used:

 i. When the infinitive takes the place of a noun preceded by à (cf. §§ 152-154).

> Préparez-vous à partir (au départ). Il s'amuse à pêcher (à la pêche) Encouragez-le à travailler (au travail)

ii. When the infinitive really has a passive meaning (like the Latin participle in -dus, cf. delenda est Carthago):

Cette maison est à vendre (for être vendue).

C'est à prendre ou à laisser.

C'est bien difficile à croire.

On s'ennuie quand on n'a rien à faire.

¹ If, instead of an infinitive, one had to deal with a finite tense of the verb, it would be necessary to use à ce que and the subjunctive mood:

Je m'oppose à ce que vous parties (=à votre départ)

iii. In certain expressions in which the infinitive is used in a conditional sense:

A vous entendre (si on vous entendait) on croirait que vous êtes malade.

Similarly: à l'en croire, à vrai dire, à tout prendre. etc.

§ 243. The preposition de is used when the infinitive takes the place of a noun preceded by de (cf. §§ 157, 158):

Je me souviens d'avoir promis (de ma promesse).

Abstenez-vous de parler (de paroles).

Ils se lasseront vite de jouer (du jeu).

On l'accuse d'avoir volé (de vol).

le vous plans de souffrir (de votre souffrance).

§ 244. Very often the preposition de is used without any prepositional force, merely as a sign of the infinitive, like to in English and zu in German.

The chief instances are:

i When the infinitive takes the place of a noun in the accusative: 1

Je vous ai promis de vous récompenser (une récombense). Je vous conseille de changer (le changement).

le crains de mourir (la mort).

Vous méritez d'être puni (une punition).

ii. After impersonal expressions (except il faut and il vant mieux):

> Il est honteux C'est une honte de mentir (cf. § 128). Il suffit | de savoir cela. But: Il faut savoir cela

Sometimes, but rarely, the accusative is replaced by à + infinitive: Donnez-moi à boire (une boisson).

Je vous apprendrai à chanter (le chant). Ne cherchez pas à fuir (la fuite).

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- m. In the historic infinitive (infinitif historique), the use of which makes the narrative more vivid:
 - " Ainsi dit le renard, et flatteurs d'applauder " LA FONTAINE
- § 245. Certain verbs govern sometimes à infinitive, sometimes de +infinitive. For example:
 - i. The verbs décider and résondre govern de when active, but a when passive or reflexive:

Ils ont décide (résolu) de partir Ils se sont décidés (résolus)

ii. The verbs forcer, obliger, contraindre, govern & when active, do when passive:

> le vous forcerai à parler Vous serez obligé de parler

- ui. Some verbs have a different meaning according as they are followed by d or d.
 - (a) Il demande à parler (il désire parler). Il vous demande de parler (il désire que vous parliez)
 - (b) S'il vient à passer (if he happens to pass). Il vient de passer (he has just passed)
- iv. Note the difference between commencer a and c :mencer par:

Il commence à comprendre.

Il commença par nous insulter.

v. After après, the perfect infinitive must be used (not the simple infinitive as in English):

Après avoir appris . . . not : après appren 11

The gerund (verbal noun, cf. § 169)

§ 246. The gerund has the same form as the present participle, but not the same origin; 1 it is preceded by en (or tout en) and is always invariable.

The gerund is used -

(a) to describe the manner of the action:

Il se sauva en courant. On apprend en travaillant.

(b) instead of the conjunction pendant que + finite verb: Elle me regardait en riant (= pendant qu'elle riait).

Il regardait jouer les autres tout en mangeant (= pendant qu'il mangeait).

Sometimes the preposition *en* is not expressed, but only implied:

chemin faisant (= en faisant chemin).

figurativement parlant (- en parlant figurativement).

N.B.—The subject of the gerund should always be the same as that of the verb of the sentence:

tout en mangeant, il continuait à m'interroger.

chemin faisant, elle rencontra . . .

en parlant ainsi, elle pleurait à chaudes larme;

But not: en parlant ainsi, ses larmes coulaient.

espérant vous voir bientôt, je reste

Cordialement à vous . . .

But not (as English people often write, quite incorrectly):

"hoping to see you soon, believe me,

Yours truly . . "

The participle aimant is derived from Latin amantem. The gerund en aimant is derived from Latin in amando.

The present participle (verbal adjective, cf. § 169)

§ 247. i. The present participle agrees with the noun to which it refers, when it is used to denote a continuous state or quality (adjectival element predominant):

Une femme charmante.
Une industrie florissante.

"Les grands chars gémissants qui reviennent le soir."

V. Hugo.

ii. It is always invariable when it is used to denote action (verbal element predominant):

Il y avait trois ou quatre personnes parlant toutes à la fois. Il vit une foule d'hommes et de femmes courant vers le rivage.

It will be obvious that the present participle always has a verbal function when governing an accusative:

Une femme almant ses enfants Je l'ai surprise lisant votre lettre.

in. The present participle is sometimes used in absolute constructions (like the past participle; cf. § 251):

Le train entrant en gare, il dit acheu à son ami.

Le soir tombant, on alluma la lampe.

N.B.—Ayant, étant and soi-disant are always invariable. e.g., Ces soi-disant patriotes, "these self-styled patriots."

The past participle (verbal adjective, cf. § 169)

§ 248. (a) The past participle, used as an adjective, agrees in gender and number with the noun it qualifies: 1

Une lettre bien écrite.

Une femme aimée.

(b) The past participle conjugated with être agrees with the subject:

Ils sont délivrés : ils sont venus, elle est tombée.

¹ The participles excepté, ci-inclus, ci-joint, remain invariable when placed before the noun, but agree with it when placed after:

Excepté les jours de fête, but : les jours de fête exceptés

Ci-joint les documents, but : les documents ci-joints.

§ 249. The past participle conjugated with avoir agrees only with a preceding accusative—otherwise, it remains invariable. Examples:

Elle a bien dormi (no object).

Ie les ai vus hier (accusative precedes).

J'ai vu vos frères hier (accusative follows).

Je leur at parlé (leur is a dative).

J'aime beaucoup les fraises. J'en ai mangé tous les jours cette semaine (en is a genitive).

All the difficulties which may be encountered will be solved as soon as the correct answer has been found to the question: WHAT IS THE TRUE ACCUSATIVE?

Examples:

(a) Les livres que j'ai demandé qu'on vous envoie.

The participle demandé remains invariable, because its accusative is the dependent clause qu'on vous envoie (and not livres, which is the direct object of envoir).

Question: What did I ask? Answer: That the books should be sent.

(b) Je les ai entendus chanter: "I heard them sing." Les is the direct object of entendus (cf. § 238, iii. (a)).

But: Je me rappelle cette chanson, je l'ai entendu chanter en Bretagne

The direct object of entendu is chanter: "I heard singing it" (i.e., I heard it sung) Cf. § 239.

(c) Je les ai fait venir.

The participle *fait* is always invariable when followed by an infinitive. Why?

Question: Have I caused them? Answer: No, I caused their coming. The true object is not the pronoun, but the accusative + infinitive.

The above examples will show that the concord of the past participle, which is supposed to bristle with difficulties, is really quite simple. All that is needed is logical reasoning, i.e., common sense.

§ 250. The past participle of reflexive verbs is governed by the same considerations as the past participle conjugated with avoir: It agrees with the reflexive pronoun, when this pronoun is the accusative. Contrast:

Ils se sont rencontrés (se is accusative).

Ils se sont parlé (se is dative : They spoke to each other)

Elle s'est coupée (se is accusative)

Elle s'est coup è le doigt (se is dative, the accurative is doigt).

§ 251. The past participle is often used in absolute constructions, where it is equivalent to a perfect participle (cf. § 247, iii.):

Sa besogne faite, elle sortit (= sa besogne étant faite). La nuit venue, il se coucha (= la nuit étant venue)

MOODS IN DEPENDENT CLAUSES

Introductory remarks.— The use of moods in dependent clauses offers many difficulties, which are not likely to be solved until the student has rid his mind, once for all, of the erroneous notions and misleading tules which are still to be found in many grammars—for instance

i That the subjunctive is "the mood of doubt." (This is true only in a small number of cases)

In That the subjunctive must be used "after certain conjunctions." No conjunction or any other word can possibly govern a mood. It is not the nature of the word that matters, but the idea that it implies

The function of moods is, essentially, to express a mood, that is to say a state of mind, a particular attitude towards an object or a fact. Such is the meaning of the French "mode," and of the English "mood" (cf. such expressions as: an aggressive mood, a melancholy mood, a man of moods, etc.).

If we start from this principle, we shall realise that the terms objective mood and subjective mood would be much more appropriate than *indicative* and *subjunctive*, because the difference between them is the difference between an objective and a subjective attitude.

We speak objectively when we consider an object or a fact in itself, quite independently of any opinion we may have formed of it, or of any sentiment it may awake in us.

We speak subjectively when the chief consideration is not the object or fact in itself, but what we think or feel about it.

For example, when I say: J'ai perdu ma bourse, I am speaking objectively, because I am only making a plain statement of fact about an object (the lost purse).

But if I say: Quel malheur que j'aie perdu ma boursel I am speaking subjectively, because I am concerned not only with the object (purse), but more especially with the feeling of regret which the loss of it causes me.

Such is the general principle which governs the use of moods. If we proceed to examine those specific principles which are applicable to particular cases, we shall soon be led to the conclusion that the only safe and reliable method is the analysis of sentences, and of the clauses of which they are composed ²

The name subjunctive is derived from the fact that this mood is used in subjoined (i.e. subordinate) clauses.

Any attempt to teach the use of moods in any other way is bound

to end in failure One example will suffice:

A boy has to translate into French: "I don't know whether he will come" He looks up his grammar and finds the following rule: "If the main clause is negative or interrogative, the verb of the dependent clause must be in the subjunctive mood—eg, Je ne savais pas qu'il fût malade." Armed with this information, he confidently writes: "Je ne sais pas s'il vienne"—and is very surprised when his exercise is returned to him with the verb scored in red ink.

If he had asked himself the following questions:

(a) What kind of clause is this?--Answer: Noun clause

(b) What kind of noun clause?—Answer: Dependent Question, he would not have made a mistake, for he would (or should) have known that the verb in a dependent question can never be in the subjunctive.

These clauses are of two kinds, principal and subordinate.

The subordinate clause is generally joined to the principal by a conjunction or a relative pronoun

§ 252. In principal clauses the verb is in the indicative.

In subordinate clauses the verb is sometimes in the indicative, sometimes in the subjunctive.

- N.B.—There are three examples of a principal verb in the subjunctive:
 - (a) The "modest assertion": Je ne sache pas que
 - (b) Sentences in which a conditional clause is implied, e.g., On eut dit qu'il était malade (cf. § 265, 1., N.B. (h)).
- (c) Such expressions as Plût au cul que . . ., Dieu veuille que . . ., Puissé-je, Dussé-je.
- § 253. There are three kinds of subordinate clauses: Noun clauses, adjective clauses, and adverb clauses.
 - i. Noun clauses are those which fulfil the functions of a noun, that is to say, which stand as subject or object to the principal verb. Thus: Il est regrettable que vous parties (= Votre départ est regrettable).

Je désire qu'il guérisse (= Je désire sa guérison).

ii. Adjective clauses are those which fulfil the functions of an adjective, that is to say, which are used to qualify a noun. Thus:

On pardonne facilement aux personnes qu'on aime (= aux personnes aimées).

iii. Adverb clauses are those which fulfil the functions of an adverb (of time, place, manner, etc.). Thus:

Je veux le voir avant qu'il parte (- Je veux le voir auparavant).

Noun clauses

- § 254. Verbs of declaring and believing, such as:
- (a) Je déclare, je dis, j'affirme, je sais, je promets, etc.
- (b) Je crois, je pense, j'espère, je suis sûr, etc., are followed:
 - always by the indicative, when these verbs are conjugated affirmatively, thus implying certainty or probability (objective attitude).

Je dis, je suis sûr Je crois, j'espère } que cela est vrai.

in generally by the subjunctive, when these verbs are negative or interrogative or express a condition, thus implying uncertainty or doubt (subjective attitude).

Je ne dis pas, je ne suis pas sûr Croyez-vous, espérez-vous Si vous pensez

- § 255. There are many exceptions to the second part of the above rule; but these exceptions can be explained logically:
 - L. Though the principal verb be interrogative or negative, it may happen that the subordinate verb expresses certainty, in such a case the indicative may be used. For example:

Vous a-t-on dit qu'il était là? = Il était là (certainty); vous l'a-t-on dit?

Je ne savais pas que vous étlez venu = Vous éticz venu (certainty); je ne le savais pas (mais je le sals maintenant).

Je n'ignore pas que le danger est grand -Je sais que le danger est grand (double negation - affirmation).

ii. Certain verbs, though conjugated affirmatively, may have a negative meaning (for example mer, denter). They are therefore followed by the subjunctive:

Je doute } que vous ayez raison = 10 ne creis fas que vous ayez raison.

After douter and nier conjugated negatively, we should expect the indicative (since ne pas douter = crone). But the Latin tradition (non dubito quan) has proved stronger than logic. For the same reason (Lat quan stands for quane) the subordinate verb is preceded by ne:

Je ne doute pas | que vous **n'ayez** raison

iii. Certain verbs (admettre, supposer) may have either an affirmative or a negative incaming, according to the attitude taken by the speaker. For instance.

Je suppose qu'il viendra demain (- 10 le creis)
Supposons qu'il vienne demain (=mais 10 ne le crois pas).

iv. The expression ce n'est pas que (=ce n'est pas vrai que) and its abridged form non pas que, are followed by the subjunctive, since they are negative:

Ce n'est pas que } de tels accidents soient rares.

We should naturally expect the subjunctive after the interrogative expressions est-ce que and n'est-ce pas que. But they are followed by the indicative.

Est-ce que N'est-ce pas que } de tels accidents sont rares?

The reason is that these expressions are not considered as principal clauses, but as idiomatic forms of the direct question (generally called periphrastic forms).

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- v. In rhetorical questions, that is to say in questions which can only admit of one answer, obvious and foreseen, the nature of that answer (affirmative or negative) determines the mood of the verb.
 - If I say: Ne croyez-vous pas que cet homme est coupable? the implied answer is obviously yes.
 - If I say: Doit-on conclure qu'un homme soit coupable parce qu'il est accusé? the implied answer is obviously no.
- § 256. 1. Verbs expressing feeling or will, such as:
- (a) je me réjouis, je regrette, je crains, j'ai peur, je m'étonne, etc.
- (b) je veux, j'ordonne, je désire, je demande, je conseille, je permets, je défends, etc.

are always followed by the subjunctive:

Je suis heureux
Je regrette
Je m'étonne
Je veux
Je demande
Je permets

qu'il s'en aille.

When craindre and avoir peur are conjugated affirmatively, the dependent verb is preceded by ne (cf. Latin timeo ne):

Je crains qu'il ne soit malade.

But: Je ne crains pas qu'il soit malade.

ii. The verb *espérer*, although it expresses a state of mind, is considered as **declarative** and treated as such. When affirmative, it is always followed by the indicative $(cf. \S 254 (b))$:

J'espère qu'il le fera.

But: Je n'espère pas qu'il le fasse.

The reason is that, in the speaker's mind, the realisation of the hope is foreseen and expected. It is considered as

already accomplished. In other words, the wish is father to the thought.

J'espère qu'il le fera - Il le fera (du moins, je l'espère).

iii. For the same reason, décider and résondre are followed by the indicative (future or future in the past):

J'ai décidé que nous partirons demain - Nous partirons demain (c'est décidé).

N.B --It sometimes happens that a subordinate noun clause is equivalent to an adverbial clause. For example, in the sentence:

Il mérite que je le punisse,

the dependent clause is in reality consecutive. The sense is: If a agi de telle sorte qu'il faut que je le punisse. The punishment is the necessary consequence of the action

Similarly, in:

Je suis heureux (or étonné) que vous soyez venu, que vous soyez venu cannot be replaced by a noun in the accusative. The true equivalent is a gentive: je suis heureux de votre venue, in which de - à cause de. The clause is, therefore, virtually a causal clause (cf. § 264, A).

§ 257. Impersonal verbs are followed by the indicative when they express certainty or probability, by the subjunctive in all other cases.

Il paraît
Il est certain
Il est probable
Il est possible, douteux
Il faut, il est nécessaire
Il est regrettable
Il semble

qu'il consente.

N.B.—The verbs il paratt and il semble deserve special consideration. When, in the speaker's mind, the dependent clause expresses a fact (objective attitude), the indicative is used.

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But when the speaker's attitude is non-committal (i.e. subjective), the subjunctive is used. Examples:

Il paraît que le roi est mort.

The meaning is: The king is dead (so it appears). The news is given as certain, or at any rate probable.

But: Il semble que vous ayez de la peine à me reconnaître.

The meaning is: It seems as though you had some difficulty in recognising me (but I cannot be sure).

§ 258. In indirect questions the dependent verb is always in the indicative.

Great care should be taken not to confuse an indirect question with an interrogative statement.

In the former, the question is in the dependent clause:

Je lui ai demandé si elle viendrait (Viendra-t-elle? C'est ce que j'ai demandé).

Dites moi qui vous avez vu (Qui avez-vous vu? ditesle-moi).

Je ne savais où il était (Où était-il? Je ne le savais pas). In the latter, the question is in the principal clause:

Croit-il que ce soit vrai? Espérez-vous qu'il vienne?

N.B.—An indirect question is introduced by si, or an interrogative pronoun, or an adverb An interrogative statement is introduced by que Contrast:

Il ne dit pas si c'est vrai | Croit-il que ce soit vrai?

Adjectival (or relative) clauses

- § 259. Adjectival clauses are introduced by a relative pronoun (qui, que, dont, etc.). They are of three kinds:
 - A. Purely adjectival, when the clause merely describes an object as an adjective would do, e.g., Voilà un livre qui est intéressant (-an interesting book).

- B. Virtually consecutive, when the clause is not only descriptive, but also indicates some possible or expected result, e.g., Apportez-moi un livre qui soit intéressant (= a book likely to interest me)
- C. Virtually concessive, when introduced by an indefinite relative denoting concession, such as qui que, quai que, quel que, etc., e g., Je partirai demain, quoi qu'il arrive (=whatever happens)
- § 260. i. In purely adjectival clauses the mood is the indicative. In virtually consecutive clauses the mood is the subjunctive (cf. § 264, C, n)

Contrast

Purely adjectival Je lis un livre qui est intéres- | Apportez-moi un livre qui soit sant l'ai trouvé une maison qui me convient parfaitement. Ce fut une victoire décisive, qui acheva la guerre

Virtually consecutive intéressant

Je cherche une maison qui me convienne

On souhaitait une victoire qui acher at la guerre

(Cf. Latin: Misit legator qui pacem peterent)

u. When the principal verb is interrogative or negative, or implies a condition, the dependent verb is in the subjunctive if the antecedent is indefinite.

Contrast .

Indefinite antecedent Definite antecedent Je ne vois pas ce qui peut vous Je ne vois rien qui puisse vous arrêter arrêter. (Cf. Latin, Nihil est quod possil) Avez-vous un domestique qui Où est le domestique qui sait sache l'anglais? l'anglais? Connaissez-vous quelque sen-Si vous connaissez le sentier tier qui conduise au moulin? qui conduit au moulin, mon-

-a path such as might trez-le-moi. lead to (- the path leading to

),

§§ 260-263

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- N.B.—A negative verb or an indefinite antecedent are not, in themselves, sufficient to govern the subjunctive mood. It is necessary that both conditions should be realized.
- § 261. i. In virtually concessive clauses introduced by quel que, quelque . . . que, qui que, quoi que,¹ où que, the mood is always the subjunctive.
- N.B.—Quel que is always immediately followed by être, and the adjective quel agrees in number and gender with the subject:

Envoyez les ici, quels qu'ils soient.

Pardonnez-lui { quelles que solent ses fautes. quelques fautes qu'il ait commises.

 $\left. \begin{array}{l} Qui \ que \ vous \ soyez \\ Quoi \ que \ vous \ disiez \end{array} \right\} \ on \ ne \ vous \ ecoutera \ pas.$

Je le trouverai où qu'il soit (où =in whatever place; the adverb is used as a relative).

ii. When the antecedent is qualified by a superlative, or by such expressions as *le premier*, *le dernier*, *le seul* (which are comparable to a superlative),² the dependent clause may be either purely adjectival, in which case the mood is the indicative, or virtually concessive, in which case the subjunctive is used.

When the clause is purely adjectival, the superlative is generally followed by a genitive plural.

Contrast:

Purely adjectival
C'est le plus amusant des livres
que vous m'avez envoyés
(= of those particular books
which you did send me).

Virtually concessive
C'est le livre le plus amusant
que j'ale jamais lu (-of
whatever books I may have
read).

1 Do not confuse the relative expression quoi que with the conjunction quoique.

Because the person or object is singled out and put in a category apart from the others; this is equally so whether we say the richest man, or the first man, or the only man.

Adverbial clauses

§ 262. Temporal clauses (denoting time when) are introduced by various conjunctions: quant, lorsque, dès que, avant que, après que, jusqu'à ce que, etc.

The subjunctive is used after avant que, en attendant que, and jusqu'à ce que:

Je veux le voir avant qu'il parte (or ne parte). Attendez ici jusqu'à ce que je revienne.

In the above sentences, the action denoted by the subordinate verb is only considered as possible or prospective (i.e., future).

But if the clause introduced by jusqu'd ce que denotes an action already accomplished (i.e., past), the indicative is used:

Je l'attendis longtemps, jusqu'à ce qu'enfin il arriva.

The other conjunctions are followed by the indicative. Cf. §§ 274, ii., 275, 280.

- N.B.—The conjunction que is often used:
- (a) instead of jusqu'à ce que, for the sake of conciseness: Attendez que je revienne.
- (b) instead of quand:

 Il n'avait pas fait dix pas
 A peine était-il parti

 On le rappela).

See also § 267.

§ 268. Comparative clauses (denoting comparison between two actions or states) are introduced by adjectives or adverbs in the comparative, or by such conjunctions as comme, de même que, selon que, suivant que, etc.

¹ Sometimes with no before the dependent verb

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1. The mood is always the indicative:

Le charbon va toujours à Newcastle { comme de même que }

l'eau va toujours à la rivière.

Il faut s'habiller plus chaudement selon que le temps est plus froid.

Vous êtes d'autant plus coupable que vous aviez été prévenu.

Le vin est d'autant meilleur qu'il est plus vieux.

(Cf. § 88)

ii. If the principal clause implies a negative idea, the dependent verb is preceded by ne:

Le résultat fut autre que vous ne l'aviez prédit (implies : Vous n'aviez pas prédit qu'il serait tel)

But: Le résultat fut tel que vous l'aviez prédit (no negative implied)

Again: Il demande plus que je ne peux lui donner (implies: Je ne peux pas lui donner autant).

Il est plus riche que je ne croyais (implies: Je ne croyais pas qu'il fût si riche).

But: Il n'est pas si riche que je croyais (the implication is affirmative: Je croyais qu'il était plus riche).

N.B — Il est moins riche que je ne croyais.

This seems illogical, since the implication is the same as in the previous sentence: Je croyais qu'il était plus riche.

This anomaly is probably due to the analogy of phrases like: Il est *plus* riche que . . . As frequently happens, analogy proved stronger than logic.

§ 264. Causal, final and consecutive clauses.

Causal clauses denote the cause, that is to say the *origin*, of an action, while final and consecutive clauses denote the result, that is to say the *sequel*, of an action.

The difference between final and consecutive clauses is that in the former the result is intentional, in the latter it is accidental.

A. Causal clauses are generally introduced by such expressions as parce que, puisque, ou que, attendu que, étant donné que, after which the mood is always the indicative:

Je n'ai pas payé parce que je n'avals pas d'argent. Puisque vous le défendez, je ne le ferai pas !

But if these expressions are replaced by que, the subjunctive must be used:

Je suis heureux } que vous soyez venu (parce que yous êtes venu)

Cf § 256, iii., N.B., and 267,

B. Final clauses are introduced by the conjunctions pour que, afin que, after which the subjunctive is always used:

Nous travaillons afin que nos parents soient contents

N.B.—These conjunctions are often shortened into que:

Venez ici, que je vous parle

See also §§ 267, 268.

- C. Consecutive clauses are generally introduced by such expressions as de façon que, de sorte que, sans que, tant . . . que, tel . . . que, si . . que, assez . . . pour que, trop . . . pour que, etc.
- ¹The distinction between parce que and funque often puzzles students. It may be explained as follows
- (a) Puisque is generally used when the dependent clause precedes the principal, parcs que when it follows.

Puisqu'il pleut, je ne sortirai pas Ie ne suis pas sorti parce qu'il pleuvait

(b) Parce que (because) merely states the cause of an action in a general way. Puisque (since) emphasises a fact which is admitted to the other person:

Puisque vous insistez, j'essaierai de le faire. Since you insist. I will try (you know that you insist)

Puisque vous avez commandé ce vin, vous devez le payer Since you ordered this wine, you must pay for it (you admit that you ordered it)

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 If the consecutive fact is an accomplished fact, or if its accomplishment is considered as certain, the mood is the indicative:

Il est si bête qu'il ne comprend rien.

Je l'ai corrigé de telle sorte qu'il ne recommencers pas (he will not, I feel certain of that).

ii. If the consecutive fact is only a prospective fact, i.e., contemplated as possible, the mood is the subjunctive (cf. § 260, i.):

Faites en sorte qu'on ne vous voie pas
Ayez soin que tout soit prêt

(=faites voire possible)

Vous méritez que je vous punisse (je ne dis pas si je vous punirai).

Je lui parlerai assez haut pour qu'il m'entende (mais je ne sais pas s'il m'entendra).

Il fait trop mauvais temps pour que je sorte.

N.B.—(a) The conjunction sans que is always followed by the subjunctive, even in reference to an accomplished fact:

Je lui ai tout expliqué sans qu'il ait réussi à comprendre. The meaning is: I explained everything, and yet he did not understand.

- (b) It should be noted that sans que may be:
- 1. Consecutive, as in the above example.
- 2. Conditional (cf. § 265, ii.).
- 3. Concessive, e.g.: On vous a condamné sans que vous fussiez coupable (=although you were not guilty).
- iii. If the principal verb is negative or interrogative, or implies a condition, the subjunctive is used:

Il n'est pas
Est-il
S'il est

- § 265. Conditional clauses are introduced sometimes by si, sometimes by other conjunctions, such as pourvu que, sans que, etc.
 - i. After si, the indicative is used (cf §§ 267, 281).

Si vous voulez, je lui parlerai

Si vous voullez, je lui parlerais

Si vous aviez voulu, je lui aurais parlé

The subjunctive may also be used, but only in the pluperfect. It is preferable to use the indicative in all cases

- **N.B.**—It often happens that one of the two clauses is not expressed, but only *implied*.
 - (a) Sometimes it is the principal clause:

Il était pâle, comme s'il avait reçu une mauvaise nouvelle (implies : comme il aurait été . . .)

(b) Sometimes it is the dependent clause:

On aurait (or eût) dit qu'il était malade (implies : si on avait dit quelque chose).

ii. After sans que, pourvu que, pour peu que, à moins que, en cas que, soit que, etc., the subjunctive is always used:

Ne sortez pas sans que (or à moins que) je vous le permette (-si je ne vous le permets pas).

Pour peu que vous m'aimlez, vous resterez avec moi. Soit qu'il fasse beau, soit qu'il pleuve, je sortirai tantôt.

iii. After a condition que, either the indicative or the subjunctive may be used:

Je vous pardonne, à condition que vous ne le serez plus.

See also §§ 267, 268.

- § 266. Concessive clauses are introduced sometimes by an adverb, sometimes by a conjunction (see also §§ 259, C, and 261)
 - i. The indicative is used after tout . . . que, in reference to a positive fact, the subjunctive after si . . . que, in reference to a possible fact.

Examples:

Tout fort qu'il est, je ne le crains pas (strong as he is . . .).

St fort qu'il solt, je ne le crains pas (strong as he may be . .).

u. The subjunctive is always used after been que, quoique, sans que [cf § 264, C, ii., N.B (b)]:

Bien qu'il soit riche Quoiqu'il soit riche } il n'est pas heureux.

m. (a) After quand and quand mome, the conditional is used:

Quand vous le **jureriez**, je ne vous Quand même croirais pas.

(b) Instead of quand même, que is often found between two conditionals:

Vous le jureriez que je ne vous croirais pas.

(Cf the Fighsh colloquialism: "You might swear it, and I wouldn't believe you," where and cand yet)

(c) In inverted expressions, in which quand mime is implied, the verb is in the subjunctive:

fût-il = quand même il serait eût-il = quand même il aurait dussé-je = quand même je devrais.

^{*}Queline... que may also be used (with the subjunctive), but si... que is to be preferred for the sake of euphony (to avoid three & sounds in succession).

§ 267. In all adverbial clauses, que may be used in order to avoid repeating a conjunction. In such cases, que is followed by the same mood as the conjunction for which it stands:

Quand vous aurez passé le pont et que vous aurez traversé la place, tournez à gauche

Donnez-lui ce qu'il demande, pour qu'il s'en aille et qu'on ne le voie plus

Pourvu que tout alle bien et que tout le monde soit content, je serai content aussi

Exception: Que is followed by the subjunctive when it stands for si (although si itself governs the indicative):

Si elle vient et qu'elle veuille me voir, dites que je suis sorti

§ 268. When the principal and the subordinate verb have the same subject, it is much better to use a frieficiation with the infinitive, rather than a conjunction with the subjunctive.

Instead of:	One should say :
Il est trop malin pour qu'il se	Il est trop malin pour e
laisse prendre.	laisser prendre
Il demanda de l'argent pour ' qu'il achetât du pain	
Le fermier leur dit qu'ils mangeassent avant qu'ils partissent	
Nous étions arrivés sans que nous le sussions.	Nous étions arrivés sans le savoir

THE USE OF THE TENSES

Introductory Remarks.—The use of tenses, particularly of the *imperfect* and *past historic*, has always been a stumbling-block to English pupils, even to those who have had a classical training and are familiar with the use of tenses in Latin and Greek. Yet the subject is really quite simple.

One fact will strike us from the first: The present and imperfect have a common stem (cf. § 176):

finiss-ant,	nous finiss-ons,	je finiss-ais
naiss-ant,	nous naiss-ons,	je naiss-ais
buv- ant,	nous buv- ons,	je buv- ais

This identity of stem is not a mere coincidence. The two tenses have also a certain similarity of function.

When I say: "I am working," I mean that my work is already begun, but not yet over; it is still in being. Thus our first impression of the present is that it is the tense of uncompleted action.

It we transfer this notion to past time and say: "When you came to see me yesterday, I was working," the nature of the action is essentially the same: when you came in, I was already working and still working; my work was uncompleted, in other words, it was present.

Thus we are led to conceive the imperfect as that which was present yesterday, i.e., as the present in the past.

It would certainly lead to clearer thinking if grammarians agreed to discard the term "imperfect," and to replace it by "present in the past "—just as the term "conditional" has been replaced by "future in the past."

The imperfect and the future in the past have this in common, that both represent an idea as carried back into past time. (cf. §§ 277, 278). In other words, there is the same relationship between the future in the past and the future, as between the imperfect and the present.

We must now put students on their guard against a

possible (and unfortunately very frequent) misunderstanding of the statement contained in every grammar: "The imperfect is used to describe an action as recurring habitually in the past. This statement is true in a general way, but unless clearly defined, it is bound to mislead. Confronted with such a sentence as:

"During three years he went to his office every morning" the unwary student will use the imperfect, and write:

Pendant trois ans il allast à son bureau tous les matins For, surely, an action which was repeated every day for three years can be described as recurring habitually!

The correct explanation is this:

The phrase "I was working" refers to an isolated action.

The phrase "I worked every day" refers to a series of actions

Now just as, in the first instance, the imperfect is used to describe one action as uncompleted, so, in the second, it is used to describe an uncompleted series of actions. But, should the series come to an end at any definite moment, then it has become completed, and the imperfect can no longer stand.

Thus the sentence "For three years he had been going . . ." implies that he was still going (uncompleted series)—and the proper translation is:

Depuis trois ans, il allait . . .

But the sentence "For three years he went.." implies that afterwards he stopped going (completed series)—and the proper translation is:

Pendant trois ans, il alla . . .

The foregoing remarks should now help us to understand the nature of the past historic tense.

Its function is to describe an action:

- (a) as entirely completed,
- (b) as having begun (or ended) at a certain moment in the past, that is to say, as having definite limits in time. (Hence the French term passé défini.)

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For instance:

Definite beginning: Il se mit en marche—he started walking, he had not been walking before.

Definite ending: Il plut toute la matinée—it rained the whole morning, then it stopped raining.

Cf. § 272.

N.B.—It should be carefully noted, however, that:

When dealing with an isolated action, the past historic is used whether such action be restricted as regards its beginning, or its ending, or both.

But when dealing with a series of actions or with a continuous state, the past historic is used only when such action or state is restricted as regards its end.

The difference between the two tenses will now be clearly realised. Essentially, it is the difference between completed and uncompleted actions or states or series of actions.

Tenses of the Indicative

Present

§ 269. The present is used to describe:

i. What is going on now:

Je travaille. Les oiseaux chantent dans le jardin.

ii. What is true at all times:

Le temps passe vite. Les chiens sont fidèles.

- ui. An action recurring habitually in the present:
 Nous mangeons tous les jours.
- iv. An action begun in the past, but still going on at the present moment:

(Nous attendons depuis dix minutes.

Il y a dix minutes que nous attendons.

Il soulfre depuis trois jours (il souffre encore maintenant).

J'habite Londres depuis deux ans (je l'habite encore).

v. The present is sometimes used, instead of the past, to make the narrative more vivid (as though events were actually happening under our eyes). This is called the historic present. It is only used for a series of actions, never for an isolated action:

"On le cherche, on court à sa chambre, on enfonce la porte, on le trouve noyé dans son sang "

MME DE SÉVIGNÉ.

vi. Finally, the present is used instead of the future, to show that the contemplated action will take place very soon.

Je vais au théâtre ce soir

Imperfect and past historie

§ 270. The imperfect is used to describe:

i. An action already begun, but not yet completed at the moment (now past) of which we are speaking:

Il faisait beau, le soleil brillait (il brillait déjà).

Il nous attendalt devant la porte (il était déjà là).

Il riait en me regardant (tout le temps qu'il regardait)

Nous attendions depuis dix minutes

Il y avait dix minutes que nous quandil entra.

ii. An action (or series of actions) still recurring at the moment of which we are speaking:

Depuis trois ans, il venalt tous les matins (il continuait encore à venir).

Toutes les cinq minutes, la porte s'ouvrait (elle continuait à s'ouvrir).

§ 271. The imperfect is also used in *conditional clauses* Cf. §§ 265, i., and 281.

- § 272. The past historic tense is used to describe:
 - 1. An action as entirely completed, and clearly defined as regards time:

Il partit le lendemain matin.

Cette année-là, l'hiver fut très dur

ii. An action (or series of actions) as recurring during a limited time, after which it comes to a stop:

> Pendant trois ans, il vint tous les matins (puis il ne vint plus).

Comparative Examples of the imperfect and past historic

1. What was already begun I (and not yet finished)

Le ciel était sans nuages. et le soleil brillait.

C'était un honnête homme

A midi il était là Il aimait.

ii. Actions which kept on resurring

> Depuis trois ans, il venait tous les soirs.

l'ous les matins, il allait à l'école

travaillait depuis le matin.

11 lisait depuis trois heures.

Il était toujours malade

What happened at a clearly defined moment.

Tout à coup les nuages s'écartèrent, et le soleil brilla.

Des ce moment, it fut honnête (il devint honnête).

A midi il arriva.

Il aima (il devint amoureux)

Actions recurring during a limited time, after which they came to a stop.

Pendant trois ans, il vint tous les soits (puis il ne vint plus)

Jusqu'à l'âge de douze ans, il alla tous les matins à l'école (buis il cessa)

Il travailla toute la matinée (puis il cessu)

Il lut jusqu'à trois heures (purs il cessa)

Jusqu'à l'été il fut malade (puis il guérit).

N.B.—The same difference existed in Latin and Greek:

cantabat, he was singing, or | cantavit, he started singing, or used to sing. evoires he was ill

sang at a particular moment. evocnos, he fell ill.

Perfect tense

§ 273. The perfect is used:

- To describe an action, or state, or series of actions, os entirely completed now (at the moment of speaking):
 J'ai fini le livre que vous m'avez prêté.
 - J'ai habité Londres pendant deux ans (Jene l'habite plus maintenant) Cf § 269, iii
- ii Instead of the past historic tense. In familiar style (that is to say, in conversation or in a letter), the past historic tense is never used, it is replaced by the perfect.

Contrast

I iterary style
Il travailla toute la matinée
Il lut jusqu'à trois heures
A midi il arriva.
J'entendis une voix qui criait

Familiar style
II a travaillé toute la matinée
II a lu jusqu'à trois heures
A mideil est arrivé.
J'al entendu une voix qui

Pluperfect and second pluperfect

- § 274. The pluperfect (in French plus-que-parfait) is used
- To describe an action or state or series of actions a already completed at some moment now past

J'avais fini de bonne heure ce jour-là Il avait travaillé toute la matinée (he had been working all the morning)

ii. In temporal clauses (after quand, lorsque, des que, aussilôt que, etc.), if the principal verb is in the imperfect:

Quand il avait fini un livre il en commençait un autre (habitually).

§ 275. The second pluperfect (in French passé antérieur) is used:

i. In simple sentences, to describe a single action as completed within a definite time—or at a definite moment—now past:

Il eut fini en quelques minutes.

Il eut fini à trois heures.

ii. In principal clauses beginning with *à peine*, when the principal verb is in the past tense:

A peine fut-il arrivé qu'il tomba malade.

A peine eut-il parlé que tout le monde éclata de rire. In such phrases the pluperfect could also be used. Cf. § 262, N.B. (b).

iii. In temporal clauses (after quand, lorsque, dès que, aussilôt que, etc.), if the principal verb is in the past tense (cf. § 274, ii.):

Quand il eut fini son livre, il en commença un autre (on that occasion only).

Contrast:

Principal verb in the imperfect
Quand il avait fini, il s'en allait.
Dès qu'il m'avait aperçu, il se saurait

Principal verb in the
past historic
Quand il eut fini, il s'en alla
Dès qu'il m'eut aperçu, il se
sauva

Parfait surcomposé

§ 276. In familiar style, the second pluperfect is never used (cf. § 273, ii.). It is replaced by a tense called in French parfalt surcompose, for which there is no equivalent in English, and which is made up of the perfect of the auxiliary verb (j'ai eu, j'ai été) followed by the past participle. Thus the parfait surcomposé of chanter is j'ai eu chanté,

of finir ,, j'ai eu ani, etc.

Contrast:

Literary style

Quand il eut fini, il partit

Dès que la pluie eut cessé,
nous retournâmes au jardin

Familiar style
Quand il a eu fini, il est parti
Dès que la pluie a eu cessé,
nous sommes retournés au
jardin.

- N.B.—The device known as surcomposition may be applied to other tenses also, e.g.:
 - (a) The conditional perfect:

J'aurais eu fini plus tôt, si vous ne m'aviez pas interrompu.

(b) The perfect subjunctive. Contrast:

Literary style Familiar style
On m'interrompit avant que on m'a interrompu avant que f'eusse fini.

Future, future in the past, and conditional

N.B.—The future in the past and the conditional have the same form, but not the same function.

§ 277. The future is used to describe an action as future in relation to the time of speaking:

Il dit (maintenant) qu'il viendra (plus tard). Te sais (maintenant) ce qu'il dira (plus tard).

§ 278. The future in the past is used to describe an action as future in relation to a time now past:

Il m'a dit (hier) qu'il viendrait (demain). Je savais (déjà) ce qu'il dirait (plus tard).

§ 279. The conditional (and conditional perfect) are used to express what would happen (or would have happened) if a condition were (or had been) fulfilled:

Je le ferais si je pouvais.

Je l'aurais fait si j'avais pu.

J'aurais ou fini plus tôt, si . . . (cf § 276; N B.).

¹ There is the same relationship between the future and the future in the past as between the present and the imperfect. Cf Introductory Remarks, page 150

The verbs ferais, aurais fait, etc. do not refer to any moment in the past, but denote that the action depends on the fulfilment of a condition.

The conditional is also used:

i. To repudiate some suggestion which is considered preposterous and impossible of realisation:

Moi, je pourrals trahir ma patrie? (To think that I could . . .!)

ii. In reference to a statement, for the truth of which the speaker will not assume responsibility:

D'après certains critiques, Homère n'aurait pas existé

D'après le Times, la paix aurait été signée (= a éte signée, si ce que dit le Times est vrai)

§ 280. After quand, lorsque, des que, aussitôt que, if the principal verb is in the future or conditional, the dependent verb also must be in the future or conditional.

In English, we say "I shall speak to her when she comes," which is illogical, since both actions are equally prospective (i.e., future). The French say

Je lui parlerai quand elle viendra.

Si vous vouliez, je lui parlerais quand elle viendrait.

Cf. Latin: Quum redierit dicam

§ 281. On the other hand, one should never use the future or the conditional after si, introducing a conditional clause (when si = English if, German wenn)

Thus, one cannot say:

Je lui parlerai si elle viendra Jo lui parlerais si elle viendrait

One must say:

Je lui parlerat si elle vient.

Je lui parlerais si elle venait.

The future (or future in the past) can only be used after si in troducing an indirect question (when si = English whether, German ob)

Tenses of the subjunctive

§ 282. The present subjunctive must be used in the dependent clause when the principal verb is in the present, future or perfect:

Je veux qu'il s'en aille.

Je serai heureux que vous venlez nous voir.

J'ai défendu qu'on le reçoive.

§ 283. The imperfect subjunctive must be used in the dependent clause when the principal verb is in the imperfect, past, conditional, or pluperfect:

Il voulait qu'on lui donnât de l'argent Le serais parti sans que vous le sussiez.

Je n'avais pas mangé, quoique j'eusse faim.

§ 284. In familiar style, the imperfect subjunctive is never used. It is replaced by the present, even when the principal verb is in a past tense. If §§ 273, ii, and 276.

Instead of:

Il était trop loin pour que nous entendissions sa voix

Il demanda que vous lui portassiez a manger portiez à manger

Il défendit qu'on me laissat entrer.

One should say:

Il ctait trop loin pour que nous entendions sa voix

Il a demandé que vous lui portiez à manger

Il a défendu qu'on me laisse entrer.

N B.--Even in the literary style, the use of the imperfect subjunctive is now being abandoned, except in the third person singular, which alone is still commonly found

XIX. WORD ORDER

§ 285. The order of the words in the sentence is the logical order, c g:

- A. subject verb attribute
 Dieu est bon
- B. subject verb direct object indirect object
 Pierre a donné deux sous à un pauvre.
- § 286. When the sentence is interrogative, we have to distinguish between:
 - 1 "Yes or No" questions, in which the interrogation bears upon the action itself.
 - (a) If the subject is a personal pronoun, it is placed after the verb:

Viendrez-vous avec nous?

(b) If the subject is a noun, it is placed before the verb, but there is also a personal pronoun after the verb.

Vos amis viendront-ils avec vous?

ii. Questions in which the interrogation bears upon the circumstances of the action (time, place, manner, etc.)
 In such cases, the subject, whatever it may be, follows the verb:

Quand viendra-t-il?

A quelle heure arrive le train?

D'où viennent ces personnes?

But it is also possible to use the same form of phrase as in i. (b):

A quelle heure le train arrive-t-il? D'où ces personnes viennent-elles?

§ 287. The interrogative form is also used in sentences beginning with à peine, peut-être, en vain, and aussi (when it means therefore):

A peine ces mots étaient-ils prononcés quand.

Peut-être le malheureux avait-il faim
En vain s'efforça-t-il de marcher.

Il commençait à pleuvoir, aussi se dépêcha t il de rentrer.

But the inversion of verb and noun (as in English) is quite impossible. One cannot say:

A peine étaient ces mots prononcés.

N.B.—Peut-être may also be used with a que clause Peut-être que le malheureux avait faim (It may be that the poor man was hungry).

- § 288. The inversion of subject and verb is used
- i. Always: in "inserted" phrases such as "he said,"
 "he replied," "he exclaimed," "he went on," etc
 Attendez, s'écria-t-il, je viens avec vous
 Monsieur, répondit le paysan, c'est le chemin le plus
 court.
- ii. Often: in subordinate clauses beginning:
- (a) with an objective relative pronoun (direct, indirect or in the genitive):

Il ouvrit le couteau { que lui avait donné son oncle dont lui avait fait présent son oncle

In such sentences the logical order is not necessary, because the pronouns have different forms for the different cases (qui, que, dont, auquel, etc.). Cf. § 151.

(b) with a conjunction:

Il venait d'être nommé heutenant, quand éclata la guerre avec la Prusse.

- § 289. The indirect object may precede the direct, when the latter is qualified:
 - (a) by a relative clause:

Il a mis à la poste la lettre que je lui ai donnée.

(b) by an attribute:

J'ai annoncé à vos parents le résultat de mes démarches.

The true explanation is that, in each of the foregoing examples, the direct object is *longer than the indirect*, and it is one of the principles of French sentence-balance that the shorter elements should precede the longer as far as possible.

§ 290. Finally, the subject is sometimes relegated to the end of the sentence, when it is desired to emphasise it. In such cases, there must also be a pronoun before the verb, as grammatical subject:

Il travaille bien, votre frère. C'est triste, une vie pareille.

N.B.—The real subject may be an infinitive preceded by de:

Il est honteux de mentir.

Cela vous portera malheur de mentir ainsi.

(Cf. §§ 128 and 130, ii.).

- § 291. When the attribute is a noun, the following points are to be noted:
 - (a) the real subject is preceded by que.
 - (b) the grammatical subject is always co.

Thus, instead of saying:

Jean est un voleur,

we can express the same idea with greater emphasis by saying:

C'est un voleur que Jean.

§ 292. This sentence may be considered as an answer to the question:

Qu'est-ce que c'est que Jean?

which consists of two clauses.

- (a) a principal clause: Qu'est-ce que c'est?
- (b) a relative clause (with the verb être implied). Que Jean (est).

Question: Qu'est-ce que c'est | que Jean (est)?

What is this that John is?

Answer: C'est un voleur que Jean (cst).

It is a thief that John 15.1

N.B.—This construction is particularly frequent in indirect questions

Expliquez-moi ce que c'est qu'un téléphone (Explain to me what a telephone is). Vous ne savez pas ce que c'est que la vie (You do not know what life is).

§ 293. When the subject is an infinitive, que may be omitted. Thus we can say either:

C'est une honte que de mentir,

or: C'est une honte de mentir.

¹ Compare the English popular expression. "He is a good fellow, is John," in which the verb is repeated, and the real subject is relegated to the end of the sentence, while a pronoun is used before the verb as grammatical subject.

ALPHABETICAL LIST OF VERBS

N.B.—All verbs in -indre are conjugated like eraindre.

Other verbs in -dre (except prendre and verbs in -oudre) are conjugated like vendre.

All verbs in -duire are conjugated like conduire.

All verbs in this list have the auxiliary avoir in compound tenses, unless *être* is indicated as the auxiliary.

INFINITIVE	PARTICIPLES	PRESENT INDICATIVE	Past Historic	FUTURE	REMARKS
absoudre	absolvant	absous, abscus, absout	absolus	absoudrai	absoudrai absolu is an adjective
acquérir	absous, f absoute acquérant acquis	absolvons, absolvez, absolveit acquiers, acquiers, acquiert acquérons, acquerez, acquièrent	acquis	acquerran	Pres subj. : acquière, acquières, acquiere
aller (etre)	allant allé	vais, vas, va allons, allez, vont	سااعا	irai	acquerions, acqueriez, acquièrent Fres subj : aille, ailles, aille allions, allexye ver aillent
	-				allez
apercevoir assaillir	assaillant	assaille, assailles, assaille	assaillis	assaıllıraı	
asseoir	assailli asseyant	assieds, assettled, assainen, assied	assis	assiérai	Ö
	B SS18	assevons, asseyez, asseyent		07 45501141	assots, assoyous, assotent Dres sub: asseve eff
avoir	ayant eu	ai, as, a avous, avez, ont	ens	aurai	Pres. subj. : aie, aies, aits,
battre	battant	bats, bats, bat	battis	battraı	Imperative ale,
boire	buvant buvant	battons, batter, batter bois, bois, boit buyons buyer boisent	snq	bourai	Pres. subj : boive, boives,
	3		·		buvions, buviez, boi- vent

-	Lenillant	bous, bous, bout	bouilles bouilliral	bouilliral	
	bouilli (nonc) clos	ez, bouillent	(none)	clora	Pres subj.: close, closes, closes closes close closions, closicz, closes sent
	- Confined		conclus conclurai	conclurai	
conduire	conclusion conduisant	concluens, concluez, concluent conduis, conduis, conduit conduisons, conduisez, conduisent	conduisis	conduisis conduirai	
confire	like suffir connaissant	connais, connais, connaît connaissons, connaissez, connaisse nt	connus	connaitrai	connattral always I before !
conquerir	like at posts	pro) spnos spnos	con,	Coudrai	
coudre	nsnoo	cours, cours, cousent	C-11-5	COLFFAI	
	conin	COURSE COUPER COURT	CCUVIIS	0.1471741	
COUVEIF	couvert	Sylvions, Couvrey Couvrent	1.78 ZR.5	craindrai	
r ra indre	crangnant craint	er, 1go. ps. e. a. arz eraigneut. erois, erois, eroit	ננרץ	16.7.2	Pres subj crov, etc
	cru	crowns crown crount	1	زير	
crofter cueillir	crossant crù cuillint	Charles Charles charles	o thus	ر ارق به لازع د	
	Curvalla like condia 11	SHOTTEN SHOTTEN			

REMARKS		Pres. subj.: doive, doives, doives, deviez, doi-	All compounds of dire (except redise) have dise in the 2nd	dicative			Pres. subj. : sois, sois, soit soyez, soient	Imperative: sois, soyons, soyons, soyez The forms printed between brackets are very seldom used
FUTURE	décherrai	devrai	dırai		dormirai	ecrira:	enverrai serai	(faudrai)
Past Historic	déchus	qus	dis		dormis	écrivis	fus	faillis
PRESENT INDICATIVE	déchois, déchois, déchoit déchoyons, déchoyez, déchoient	dois, dois, doit devons, dever, doivent	dis, dis, dit disons, diter, disent		dors, dors, dort unimons, dorment	écris, écris, écrit	ecrivons, ecrived, ecrived, (cf § 207) except the future: suis, es, est sommes, êtes, sont	(faux, faux, faut) faillons, faillez, faillent
PARTICIPLES	déchu déchu	like conduire devant dû, f. due	disant dit	like absoudre	like <i>traire</i> dormant dormi	like dechoir écrivant	ecrit like <i>employer</i> étant été	lik e conclure like traire (faillant) failli
INFINITIVE	etre)	detruire devoir	dire	dissoudre	dıstraire dormir	échoir (erre) écnre	envoyer être	exclure extraire faillir

faire	faisant fait	fais, fais, fait faisons, faites, font	fis	ferai	Pres. subj.: fasse, fasse, fasses, fassions, fassier, fass-
falloir	(none) fallu	il faut	il fallut	ıl faudra	Imperf. indlc.: il fallatt
fuir	fuyant	furs, fuis, fuit	fuis	fuirai	Pres. subj: fuie, etc.
gésir	fui gisant (none)	fuyons, fuv. z fuient gis, gis, git giv. ns, gisez, giv.nt	(r. me)	(none)	Imperf. indic gisais. The other tenses are not used
halr	haissant hai	hass, hais, hait hussons, haissez, haissent	hais	halraı	
instruire	like conduire	lis, lis, lit	ă	hrai	
, <u>!</u>	lusant	lisons here, lisent lais, luit	\$1517	ltaran	
on prince	lui maudissant	luisons, luisez, luisent maudis, maudis, maudit	man 415	maudirai	-
	mandit	maudissons, mandissez, mandissent	mentis	mentirai	
menting.	menti	mentons, mentez, mentent mets, mets, met	1:	"ettral	
moudre	mis moulant	mettons, metter mettert mouds, mouds, moud	menius	mondran	
	njnem	monoas, modes, in our in	:		

Infinitive	PARTICIPLES	PRESENT INDICATIVE	Past Historic	FUTURE	REMARKS
mourir (elre) mourant	mourant	meurs, meurs, meurt mourons, mourez, meurent	mourus	mourrai	Pres subj.: meure, meures, meure mourions, mouriez,
monnom	mouvant mû, f. mue	meus, meut mouvons, mouvez, meuvent	шns	mouvrai	meurent Pres. subj : meuve, meuves, meuve mouvions, mouviez,
					nieuvent N. B.—emouvour, past partic. ému (no cir- cumflex accent)
al naitre (ere)	naissant né	nais, nais, naît naissons, naissez, naissent	naquis	naitrai	
offrir	like luire				
ouvrir paltre	like courrir paissant (pu)	pais, pais, palt paissons, paissez, paissent	(none)	paîtraı	N B —repaitre, past repus
paraître partir (elre)	like connailre	pars, pars, part	partus	partirai	
plaire	parti plaisant	partons, partez, partent plais, plais, plaît	plus	plairai	
pleuvoir	plu pleuvant	plaisons, plaisez, plaisent il pleut	ıl plut	pleuvra	Pres. subj. : il pleuve
pourvoir	plu pourvoyant pourvu	pourvois, pourvois, pourvoit pourvoyons, pourvoyez, pourvoient	pourvus	pourvoirai	pourvus pourvoirai Pres. subj. : pourvoie, etc.

moanod	pouvan: pu	peux, peut pouvons, pouvez, peuvent	smd	pourrai	Pres. subj. : puisse, puisses, puisse puissions, puissez,
prendre	prenant pris	prends, prends, prend prenons, prenez, prennent	pris	prendraı	pulssent Pres. subj.: prenne, prennes, prenne prennons, prennc
prévaloir	prévalant prévalu	prévaux, prévaux, prévaut prévalons, prévalez, prévalert	prévalus	prévalus prévaudrai	Pres sub; prévale, prévale, prévale prevalions, prévale prevalier, prévalez, prévalez, prévalez, prévalez,
prévoir	prévoyant prévu recevant reçu	prevois, prévois, prevoit prévoi ons, prévois ez, prevoicni reçois, reçois, reçoit recevous, recevez, reçoive, it	prévis	prévoirai recevrai	Pres subj.: prévoie, etc. Pres subj.: reçoive, reçoives, reçoive, recevient, recevient, recevient,
repattre se repentir (thr) resoudre	like paire like nent r like absoure				two past participles:
rice	riant ri rompant	ris, ris, ret rions, riez, rient remis, romps, rompt	ris rompis	nrai remprai	Fres gub) riv.nes.ne ruons, ruez, nent
i sta ullin	rompu like assilaar	rompons, rompez, romp int	-	=	Used only in the 3rd person

REMARKS	Pres. subj.: sache, saches, saches, sachiez. sachiez. sachiez. sachiez. sachent imperative sache. sachons, sachez			Pres subj : tienne, tiennes, tienne tenions, teniez, tien- nent	Pres. subj.: traie, etc.
FUTURE	saurai	s orv irai sorturai	survrai	tiendrai	trairai
PAST HISTORIC	v.	servis sortis	suffis	tins	(none)
PRESENT INDICATIVE	sals, sals, sait savons, savez, saveni	sers, sers, sert servons, servez, servent sors, sors, sort sortions, sortez, sortent	suffis, suffis, suffit suffisons, suffisors, suffisors, suitis, suit suivons, suivezt, suivent	tenons, tiens, tient tenons, tenez, tiennent	trais, trais, trait trayons, trayez, traient
PARTICIPLES	sachaut su	like mentir servant servi sortant sortant sorti	like traire suffisant suffi suivant	like plare tenant tenu	trayant trait like assasilir
INTINITIVE	за у оп.	sentir servir sortir (#re)	soustraire suffire suivre	tare tenr	traire tressallir

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